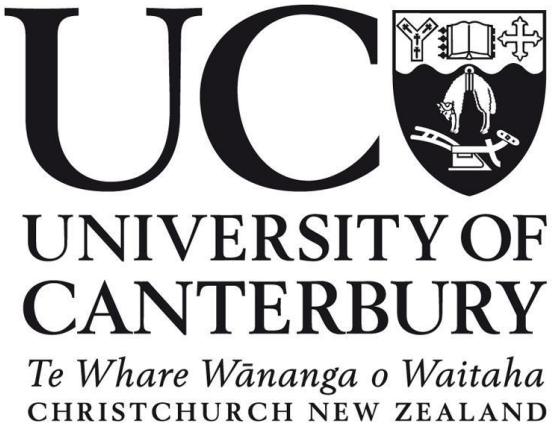

MEDIA PRACTICES, LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND SOCIOPHONETIC VARIATION IN PAKISTANI ENGLISH

By

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Abstract

This dissertation examines media practices, language attitudes and sociophonetic variation among second language speakers of English in Pakistan. A key question is whether speakers' attitudes and media practices, measured quantitatively, are reliable predictors of sociophonetic variation. Information about speakers' attitudes and media practices was collected from 407 participants using an online survey. The findings demonstrate a lot of variation in speakers' attitudes and their media consumption patterns. Generally, Pakistani speakers reported more positive attitudes towards the British (RP) and General American (GA) varieties of English than Pakistani English. Results of the media use patterns suggest that speakers use a variety of media types for entertainment, information and, specifically, for the purposes of learning English. Also, in general, English language media that include mostly American and British media form a substantial portion of participants' media consumption. Following a principal component analysis of the questionnaire, a mixed effects regression analysis was performed to examine the relationship between the participants' attitudes, media consumption and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. The findings suggest a relationship between participants' attitudes towards British, American and Pakistani accents of English and their media engagement: speakers with positive attitudes towards a given variety are shown to consume more media with that variety.

To examine whether speakers' attitudes and their media consumption influence their linguistic behaviour, 54 of the 407 participants were selected for the second phase of the research, in which participants kept a media diary and took part in an interview. The interview data was used to establish the new Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE) that contains 158,453 words (17.5 hours). Two linguistic variables, /t/ and /r/, were analysed. I examine how speakers with different attitudes and media consumption realise /t/ in intervocalic position and /r/ in non-pre-

vocalic position. These variables were chosen as they each have variants which are typical of either British, American or Pakistani English. Specifically, for intervocalic /t/, [t] is likely in British English (RP), [ɾ] is likely in American English, and [ʈ] is common in Pakistani English. For non-prevocalic /r/, an approximant is common in American English, a trill is likely in Pakistani English, while non prevocalic /r/ would not be realised in RP. The tokens (/t/: 2839 tokens, /r/: 4131 tokens) were coded auditorily. Mixed effects logistic regression modelling revealed that variation in the realisations of the two linguistic variables is predicted by speakers' media consumption practices and their language attitudes. The probability of intervocalic /t/ realisation as [ɾ] was higher in speakers with a higher score for English language media and American media consumption. Likewise, the probability of [t] is higher in speakers with higher scores of English media and lower scores of non-English media. Similarly, the likelihood of [ʈ] is higher in speakers with a higher score for the consumption of Pakistani media and a lower score for the consumption of American media. Also, the probability of [ʈ] is higher in speakers who have more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent. Similarly, the realisation of /r/ was conditioned by speakers' media consumption and language attitudes.

Overall, the findings suggest that speakers' media consumption and attitudes can predict their linguistic behaviour. This work has contributed to the literature on variation studies by testing the influence of media on linguistic behaviour of second language speakers of English. This research work presents a context where source of linguistic innovations does not exist in the speech community and therefore difficult to explain through the theory of face-to-face interaction. The findings suggest that the spread of these linguistic innovations to Pakistani English speech is taking place through media exposure. The findings are in disagreement with the commonly held view among sociolinguists that media does not typically influence linguistic behaviour, because face-to-face contact is a principal factor in language variation and change (e.g. Chambers, 1998; Labov & Harris, 1986; Trudgill, 1986).

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1 Introduction

The research work presented in this thesis explores (a) the media consumption practices, (b) the language attitudes, (c) the relationship between language attitudes and media consumption practices, and (d) the influence of language attitudes and media consumption practices on accent variation, among second language speakers of English born and living in Pakistan. The project examines the extent to which Pakistani speakers of English adopt phonological features which might be considered to be "British", "American", or "Pakistani English" features of English. Most of the work carried out on the sociolinguistics of English deals with people who are either native speakers of English (see among much else Eckert & Rickford, 2001; Horvath 1985; Labov, 1966, 2001; Trudgill, 1974) or 2nd language speakers of English who live in an English speaking country, e.g. as members of diaspora communities (see Gnevsheva, 2015b; Lambert , Alam, & Stuart-Smith, 2007; Sharma, 2011). Recent work has argued that variation can be used for sociolinguistic positioning in a second language (Gnevsheva, 2016), yet we know relatively little about how social factors might influence the pronunciation of L2 speakers of English who have lived most of their life in their countries where English is a second language. In such countries, a likely major source of native English input is the media, such as TV, radio, and online streaming services. Much variationist work has questioned and even denied the possible impact of media engagement as an influencing factor on language variation and change partly because it does not involve any face-to-face interaction (Chambers, 1998; Labov & Harris, 1986; Trudgill, 1986, 1988). However, there have been a few suggestions that there is such an impact (see Stuart-Smith, 2011, 2012; Stuart-Smith, Pryce, Timmins, & Gunter, 2013; Stuart-Smith, 2014), although to my knowledge this has not received a reasonable amount of attention in an 'English as L2' context. The present research work focuses on L2 speakers of English in Pakistan with different types of media engagement. Using

variationist sociolinguistic methods, I examine the extent to which media engagement can predict sociophonetic variation in L2 English.

Before discussing the possible relationship between speakers' linguistic behavior and media consumption and attitudes, this thesis presents a detailed general descriptive picture of language attitudes and media consumption among Pakistani speakers of English. I present an overview of speakers' attitudes towards a British accent, an American accent and a Pakistani accent of English, and their consumption particularly of English media (American and British media). I also use regression analysis to understand how attitudes towards the British accent (RP), the General American (GA) accent and the Pakistani accent of English (PE) are conditioned by participants' media consumption, as well as social factors such as gender and socioeconomic status. The aim of this study is five fold. First, it provides an insight into the media habits and practices of the participants and how these practices are influenced by sociodemographic factors. Second, it investigates how favourably or unfavourably Pakistani speakers rate their own variety of accent and other varieties of accent, in terms of solidarity, status and personal preferences. Third, it investigates the relationship between participants' attitudes towards RP, GA and PE and media consumption. There has been speculations that media impacts attitudes and preferences towards accents (e.g. Bayard, Weatherall, Gallois, & Pittam, 2001). Fourth, it contributes to the existing literature on language attitudes and media studies in Pakistan. There are, to the best of my knowledge, a few studies that deal with the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards different dialects of English (See Jabeen, Mahmood, & Rasheed, 2011; Khalid, 2016; Parveen & Mehmood, 2013). This gives me an opportunity to explore the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards native and non-native accents of English and see how they may play a role in their linguistic behavior. There are research studies that report that attitudes do not play a role in the linguistic behavior of the

speakers (e.g. Trudgill, 2004, 2008). However, there are some research studies that report that attitudes are likely to predict linguistic behavior of the speakers (e.g. Johnsen, 2015; Wang, 2017). Fifth, it investigates the relationship between media exposure and engagement and linguistic variation.

1.1 Focus of the Research

English holds huge importance as a lingua franca(Jenkins, 2006, 2007) in the world and in many countries, it has attained the status of an official and very important second language. Pakistan is one of such countries where English, even in the postcolonial era, is not only used as an important second language but also an official language in a wide range of public and private domains. In the context of World Englishes, English spoken in a certain region is sometimes referred to as the English of that particular region such as Chinese English, Indian English, and Pakistani English (Kachru, 1985). These varieties of English have linguistic features which are typical to these varieties making them different from other varieties of English. Sometimes the terms 'standard' and 'non-standard' are used to refer to native varieties of English such as standard British English (RP) and General American English (GA) and non-native varieties of English such as Pakistani English (PE). Although the notion of 'standard' and 'non-standard' is not seen negatively in the field of linguistics, the lay people still use these concepts to differentiate between Received Pronunciation and other regional varieties of English. Studies show that speakers report more positive attitudes towards standard varieties of British English (RP) and General American English (e.g. Bayard et al., 2001; Hiraga, 2005). A part of this dissertation explores the attitudes of Pakistani speakers towards the British accent (RP), the General American accent and the Pakistani accent, and investigates how these attitudes are conditioned by their gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption. A few

studies have been conducted on attitudes towards British English in Pakistan but there is no study, to the best of knowledge, which exclusively deals with attitudes towards British, American and Pakistani accent of English. These studies, generally, examine Pakistani language learners' attitudes towards British and Pakistani English (Khalid, 2016; Parveen & Mehmood, 2013). These studies show that British English in Pakistan is the preferred model and Pakistani learners feel positive about it. These studies do not take into consideration the social factors that might play a role in conditioning the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English. The present study examines the social factors of gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption to explain the variation across the data.

Most work on English in Pakistan to date has typically focused on lexical, grammatical and phonological characteristics, describing them as 'deviations' and 'innovations' from standard British English (RP) usually due to the influence of L1 transfer (see R. Baumgardner, 1993; R. Hassan, 2000; Rahman, 2001). There has, to the best of my knowledge, been no empirical variationist sociolinguistic work on English in Pakistan. The present project therefore addresses this gap, adding to the existing literature on sociolinguistic studies in Pakistan, while at the same time investigating the extent to which media exposure and engagement has an impact on Pakistani English.

1.2 Research Questions

This dissertation answers the following overarching questions:

1. What is the type and degree of media consumption among Pakistani speakers of English?

2. What are the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards different accents of English, specifically General American (GA), British accent (RP) and the Pakistani English (PE) accent? How are speakers' attitudes predicted by the type of media consumption and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status?
3. Do speakers with higher/lower consumption of British and American media tend to have more/less features of British and American accent in their speech?
4. Do speakers with positive/negative attitudes towards RP, GA and PE adopt more/less accent features typical of these varieties

The first research question investigates the type and the degree of media engagement among Pakistani speakers of English. I included a range of questions in the questionnaire regarding the media consumption of the participants. For instance, how often do they watch a particular kind of media? Do they watch American TV shows, movies or listen to American music? How often do they engage with British media programmes, movies, shows and music?

The second research question explores the attitudes of Pakistani speakers towards the General American (GA), British English Received Pronunciation (RP) and Pakistani English (PE) accent of English. The research question investigates how negatively/positively participants rate RP, GA and PE on various dimensions of status, solidarity and personal preferences. Moreover, it examines the relationship between participants' language attitudes and their sociodemographic factors. The research participants for this study are 18-25 year old men and women from Pakistan belonging to different backgrounds, with different language attitudes and media consumption. I have chosen this age group because young people are most likely to engage in a range of forms of media consumption (e.g. TV and streaming online services) (See Carvalho, 2004; Muhr, 2003). This research question also examines the relationship of participants' attitudes towards RP, GA and PE with their media consumption and the social

factors of gender and socioeconomic status. For instance, do participants with higher consumption of British media have more positive attitudes towards RP? Do participants with higher consumption of American media have more positive attitudes towards GA? Do participants with higher consumption of Pakistani media have more positive attitudes towards PE? I predict that speakers who have more positive attitudes towards a particular accent consume more media in that accent.

The third question investigates the impact of media exposure and engagement on the speech production of the participants by exploring how the kind of media speakers engage with influences their accents. Broadly, do speakers who engage with American media sound more American? Do speakers who engage with British media sound more British?

The fourth question investigates the relationship between attitudes and linguistic behaviour. It answers questions like: do speakers with more positive attitudes towards British English tend to speak with features of RP? Do speakers with more positive attitudes towards GA have more American features in their speech? Do speakers with more positive attitudes towards PE have more features of Pakistani accent in their speech?

1.3 Significance of the research

First, this study presents a detailed account of Pakistani speakers' media practices, and the possible relationship between media consumption and participants' sociodemographic factors (see chapter 4). Second, this thesis presents the detailed study of Pakistani speakers' attitudes towards the British accent, the General American accent and the Pakistani accent, and how participants' attitudes are conditioned by media consumption and sociodemographic factors such as gender and socioeconomic status and (see chapter 4). There have been suggestions that

spoken media influences attitudes and preferences towards accents (e.g. Bayard et al., 2001). Bayard et al. (2001) conducted a study in New Zealand, Australia and the USA and found that American speech was rated higher than other accents on dimensions of solidarity, status, competence and power. They argued that the shift of prestige from RP to American English could possibly be the result of media influence and that it is a reflection of 'American global hegemony in all its guises: fast foods, pop music, films, middle-class TV sitcom'(Bayard et al., 2001, p. 41). They further argued that the 'shift of overseas prestige standards in New Zealand has been caused at least to some extent by the spoken media' particularly television (Bayard et al., 2001, p. 41). Bayard et al. (2001, p. 43) suggested that one way to examine the 'impact of global broadcast media on attitudes' is to investigate the accent preferred by L2 speakers in non-English speaking countries'.

Third, this thesis examines the effect of attitudes and media consumption on second language speakers of English in Pakistan. By investigating the role of attitudes and media consumption, the project attempts to explain how media consumption and language attitudes can play a role in language variation and change (see chapter 6 and 7). Many of the sociolinguists working in the field of variationist sociolinguistics had rejected the role of media in language variation and change because it does not involve any face-to-face interaction (e.g. Chambers, 1998; Labov & Harris, 1986; Trudgill, 1986). Stressing the role of interaction in the study of black community speech in Philadelphia, Labov and Harris (1986) argue that 'those speakers who engage in structured interaction with whites, where they use language to negotiate their position or gain advantages, show a profound shift of their grammatical rules'(p.20). Similarly, Chambers (1998) argued that exposure to standard speech on television may enhance its prestige, but for linguistic change to take place, interaction is required. However, there are some research studies which reported the role of media in language variation and change (e.g.

Carvalho, 2004; Lameli, 2004; Muhr, 2003; Stuart-Smith, 2007). Carvalho (2004) suggested that Brazilian television plays an indirect role in the diffusion of palatalization among speakers of Uruguayan Portuguese. Likewise, Lameli (2004) argued that there has been a widespread reduction in the spoken regional dialects in Germany because of radio broadcasting. Muhr (2003) claims that exposure to German German through television plays a role in the lexical and grammatical changes going on in Austrian German. Stuart-Smith (2007) conducted a study in Glasgow to investigate the influence of television on pronunciation features of non-mobile working-class adolescents. The findings of the study suggest that in addition to other social factors, there is a positive correlation between the linguistic variables (th, dh) and engagement with EastEnders television programmes. Stuart-Smith (2007, p. 140) argues that 'the advent of television represents one of the most significant social phenomena of the twentieth century, and yet, whether television might influence language – or not – is a neglected area of sociolinguistic research'.

1.4 Thesis structure

There are eight chapters in this thesis. The introduction forms the first chapter, in which I present a brief introduction of my project along with its significance. In addition to this, I present the research questions which steer the directions of this thesis. I shall keep referring to these main questions throughout the thesis.

In Chapter 2, I first provide the contextual background of the project and then I discuss at length the qualitative and quantitative sociolinguistic studies carried out so far on language variation and change in production including social factors such as language attitudes, socio-demographic factors and media consumption. In this chapter, I also discuss how media engagement and media exposure have been treated by researchers in media effects research. I

have used the term media consumption to cover both exposure and engagement. In media effects research, media engagement is believed to be more powerful than media exposure(Gunter, 2000; Horton & Wohl, 1956; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013). This chapter also contains the discussion on the linguistic variables included in this study.

Chapter 3 presents a detailed account of the methods I used for carrying out this research. I spent 6 months in data collection using a questionnaire, a media diary and a sociolinguistic interview. I discuss in detail my experiences with participants and the challenges I faced. With the recorded data, I developed a Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE) which contains 158,453 words (approximately 17.50 hours of spoken data). The development of COPE is one of the important contributions of my doctoral work. I present a detailed description of the principal component analysis of the media and language attitude section of the questionnaire and how the media index score, and attitudinal index score for each of the three accents was calculated.

In Chapter 4, I present the analysis of media and language attitudes in two sections. Section 4.1 contains a detailed account of media consumption of Pakistani speakers of English, based on the questionnaire responses from 407 participants. These 407 participants took part in the online survey. In this section, I present a detailed description of type and extent of media consumption, media motives, and how speakers' media consumption is related to the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. In section 4.2, I provide a detailed analysis of attitudinal portion of the questionnaire responses in order to give a general descriptive overview of participants' language attitudes. I use their responses to present a descriptive overview of the language attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English. This chapter presents the results of the questionnaire regarding attitudes of speakers towards the RP, GA and PE. The possible relationship between participants' media consumption (media exposure and media engagement) and their attitudes towards RP, GA and PE is also discussed in this chapter.

In Chapter 5, I present an analysis of the questionnaire responses and media diary responses from what I call the 'key sample': 54 participants who did the questionnaire mentioned above but who also took part in the interview and media diary keeping phase. I start with the analysis of questionnaire responses of the participants, presenting the analysis of demographic background, media consumption and language attitudes along with methods and procedures followed. An aim here is to show that the results from the key sample are compatible with the results from the larger data set, analysed in chapter 4. Following this, an analysis and discussion related to the media diary is provided.

In Chapter 6, I present the detailed analysis of two phonetic features, /t/ and /r/ and their correlation with media consumption (media exposure and media engagement), language attitudes, gender and socioeconomic status. The first section of the Chapter 6 presents a detailed analysis of /t/ with discussion of the distribution of /t/ and how /t/ is realised in various accents of English in the intervocalic position. The second section of chapter 6 presents the detailed analysis of /r/ with all the methodological details.

In Chapter 7, I discuss the findings of the research providing a brief summary of the results on media consumption and attitudes and explaining the possible relationship between media consumption (media exposure and media engagement), attitudes and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. I also discuss how language attitudes, social factors, media engagement and media exposure play a role in the adoption of certain accent features and variation in production, discussing the theoretical and practical implications of this study.

In Chapter 8, the conclusion of this study and future avenues for further research are discussed.

2 Literature Review

This chapter is structured as follows. I begin with some contextual background, briefly explaining the introduction and status of English in Pakistan and how English continues to enjoy the status of official language, even in the postcolonial period. Then I provide an overview of important phonological features of Pakistani English. Following this, I review some pertinent literature about media consumption, language attitudes and language variation. After that, I present a detailed discussion on selected linguistic variables.

2.1 Contextual background

English, being an international language, is spoken all over the world. To understand the distribution of English in the world, Kachru (1997) presented three circles (see figure 2.1) in which native English speaking countries (England, USA, Canada, New Zealand, Australia) lie in the inner circle, and former colonized countries such as India, Pakistan, Africa and others lie in the outer circle. The expanding circle contains all the other countries where English is becoming an important language in all the fields of life (Arab countries, Turkey, Japan, China etc.). This framework is well-known in research on World Englishes.

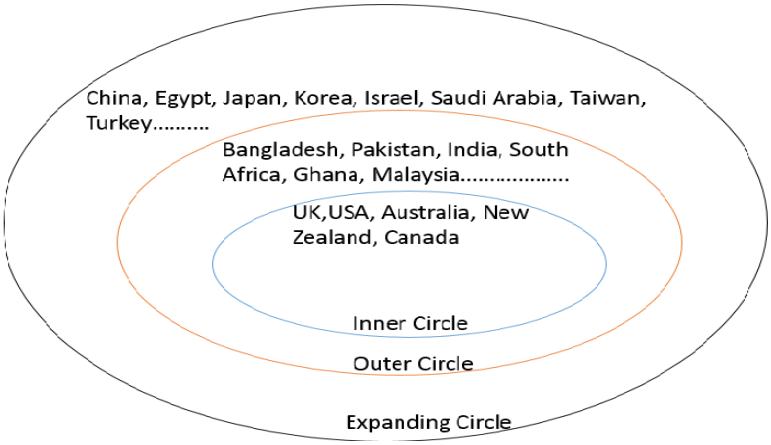

Figure 2.1 Distribution of English in the world (Adapted from (Kachru, 1997, P.356)

Previously, some accounts (e.g. Selinker, 1972) had argued that 2nd language learners' competence can be measured on an interlanguage continuum between their L1 and L2. It means that if the learner produces a form or an output different from Standard English, it is treated as an error and if the learners keep producing errors, this is called fossilization (Selinker, 1972; 1992). Quirk (1990) remarked that varieties of English in the outer circle countries are just 'interference varieties', which result from the transfer of L1 features to the L2, and suggested that language teachers focus on native norms and native-like performance. Contrary to this, Kachru (1985) argues that the sociolinguistic reality in which English is used in the outer circle is different from the inner circle, and that the former need not be seen as an interference form. As I explain below, English in Pakistan has typically been seen to be a deviation from standard (British) English, but it is increasingly being seen as a variety in its own right. This offers interesting potential to explore how emerging sociolinguistic factors, such as speakers' attitudes towards Pakistani English, might affect their accent patterns.

2.1.1 English in Pakistan

Pakistan has a population of over 200 million and offers a lot of linguistic and cultural diversity. Six major languages (English, Urdu, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi, Saraiki and Balochi) are spoken in the country(Rahman, 2003). English and Urdu are mostly used in the domains of power such as courts, educational settings, and official gatherings. Urdu enjoys the status of national language of Pakistan and English continues to remain the official language of Pakistan. After a century of control by the East India Company, united India (Pakistan and Indian) remained under direct British rule from 1858 to 1947 (Kaul, 2011). Historically speaking, the majority of the English language teachers in India during British rule were local Indians, which resulted in limited contact with native English speech (Mahboob, 2004). This limited exposure to native speech led to nativization (indigenization) of English, acquiring the features of Indian languages in India and Pakistan (Kachru, 1985). The history of English language in the subcontinent can be traced back to the early 'expansionist phase of imperialism' (Phillipson, 1992, p. 110). The primary aim of retaining English was to maintain communication between the rulers and the ruled. Therefore, English was introduced in the subcontinent through the education policy (Phillipson, 1992; Schneider, 2007).At the time of partition of India and Pakistan in 1947, the Urdu language, which was mother tongue of 7% of the Pakistani population, was chosen as the national language of Pakistan (Rahman, 2003). English was thought be an appropriate official language for Pakistan. The Constitution of Pakistan (1973) has the following provisions with regard to English and Urdu:

1. The national language of Pakistan is Urdu, and arrangements shall be made for its being used for official and other purposes within fifteen years of commencing date (Article 251 Clause 1).

2. Subject to Clause (1) the English language may be used for official purposes until arrangements are made for its replacement by Urdu (Article 251, clause 2).
3. Without prejudice to the status of the national language, a Provincial Assembly may by law prescribe measures for the teaching, promotion and use of a provincial language in addition to the national language (Article 251 Clause 3).

English was not replaced by Urdu despite the efforts made from time to time by different political governments (Abbas, 1993).

English is spoken by 94 million people in Pakistan(Lyons, 2018), and is used in all fields of life, including the military, legal system, education sector, and civil administration, both provincial and federal departments. Abbas (1993) is of the opinion that the media plays an important role in the use of English in Pakistan. In addition to print media, people like to watch English channels like CNN, BBC, HBO, National Geographic, as well as Pakistani local channels for up-to-date information and entertainment (Abbas, 1993). English is a symbol of high status and sophistication and is a 'passport to success and upward social mobility' in Pakistan (Cheema & Singh 2015, p. 47).

The English language is also taught as a compulsory subject in schools in Pakistan. The model of English generally followed in teaching is standard British English. However, since exams assess only English writing and reading, aspects of listening and speaking, including pronunciation, are not prioritized and are not taught in classrooms. This means that while there is a model variety for teaching written English (typically standard British English), there is no such model for teaching pronunciation. The spoken input that most of the students receive in educational institutions is generally in the form of lectures or classroom instruction, and the variety of language in which these are presented will vary from school to school. For instance,

in elite private English medium schools, the medium of communication and instruction in the classroom is English. In state run English medium schools and less expensive private English medium schools, the medium of instruction is mostly Urdu or local languages like Punjabi or Sindhi (see Rahman, 2001). The students are rarely taught in schools by native English speakers, and have little other opportunity to converse with them. Indeed, although this observation is somewhat anecdotal, students don't get much exposure to native British English or American English in their daily life except via media like TV and radio programmes, movies in English, and online content. This in part provides the motivation for examining whether such media exposure is an influence on the accents of Pakistani people speaking English, a point to which I return below.

2.2 Pakistani English features

As for the linguistic features of English in Pakistan, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on the lexical and grammatical aspects of English (R. Baumgardner, 1993; See R. J. Baumgardner, 1990; Talaat & Anwar, 2010), but much less has been done on the phonetic and sociolinguistic aspects. The only work to my knowledge that gives a detailed linguistic overview of English in Pakistan is Rahman (1990). He gives a description of features of Pakistani English in contrast to Standard English. He conducted research on Pakistani speakers with an aim of describing the phonological and phonetic features of English spoken in Pakistan (Rahman, 1991). He collected spoken data in the forms of recordings of English words and sentences read by educated speakers whose L1 was Urdu, Punjabi, Pushto and Sindhi. For instance, he categorized Pakistani English into four categories; namely, variety A (Anglicized PE), variety B (The Acrolect), variety C (The Mesolect) and variety D (The Basilect). According to him, the pronunciation of variety A is least influenced by speakers' L1 whereas

the pronunciation of variety D speakers is the most influenced by their L1 (Rahman, 1991). The work does not describe the sociolinguistic factors which underpin this variation, however.

According to Rahman (1991), speakers of variety A tend to replace /θ/ and /ð/ with /t/ and /d/. Likewise /p, t, k/ are unaspirated in all positions. Similarly, alveolar stops /t, d/ are replaced by retroflex stops /ʈ, ɖ/. Some diphthongs, /əʊ/ and /eɪ/, are replaced by monophthongs, /oː/ and /eː/ respectively. So, although variety A is seen to be the one that is influenced least by a speaker's L1, there are, of course, still a range of phonological features which are different from Standard English accents, such as Received Pronunciation (RP). However, like RP, variety A is non-rhotic (see Rahman, 1991). The speakers of the Acrolect (Variety B), tend to replace /ɔː/ and /ɒ/ with /ɑː/. Similarly, Rahman (1991) found that they do not distinguish between /v/ and /w/. Likewise, they pronounce /r/ in pre-vocalic positions and it may be pronounced in other positions too. Speakers of the Mesolect (variety C), like Acrolect speakers tend to replace /ɔː/ and /ɒ/ with /ɑː/. These speakers also pronounce /r/ wherever it occurs in spellings of the words. Some speakers tend to insert epenthetic vowels in consonant clusters. The pronunciation of the Basilect speakers is argued to be highly influenced by their L1 (Rahman, 1991). The continuum of varieties from A to D represents gradually increasing influence on the L2 of the L1, which is in line with the accounts mentioned above which posit that such varieties are 'interference' forms(Rahman, 1991).

Besides L1 transfer, ineffective language pedagogy is another factor for the maintenance and transfer of these language 'errors' from one generation to the other (see Warsi, 2004). The majority of teachers of English in Pakistan have not undergone any training in pronunciation or in pronunciation teaching. Moreover, most of the teachers teaching English in secondary public schools in Pakistan do not possess any qualification in English language. If there is a qualification, they have degrees in English literature not linguistics and language teaching.

Furthermore, linguistics, especially Phonetics and Phonology, are relatively new subjects in Pakistan (Rahman, 2001). English literature, on the other hand, has long been taught in almost all the Pakistani universities and many of the literature graduates became English language teachers (Rahman, 2001). After 1980, a few Pakistani universities started teaching linguistics and this mostly focused on general linguistics (Rahman, 2001). This was a good start, but the majority of teachers, even today, focus more on writing rather than speaking and listening skills, as noted above, in part because that is the focus of students' examinations. In addition, communication generally in the classroom takes place in Urdu or in regional languages. Consequently, students typically do not get enough practice in the target language.

Another relevant issue is outlined by R. Baumgardner (1995), who studied the attitudes of Pakistanis on the acceptability of grammatical and lexical innovations and concluded that 'a Pakistani norm is also beginning to emerge'(p.261). It is possible that some speakers who hold positive attitudes towards Pakistani variety of English and identify themselves as speakers of a Pakistani variety of English take pride in using these linguistic features and would not prefer to learn British English features or General American English features. On the other hand, there are some people in Pakistan who try to sound like native speakers of English (Rahman, 2001). There may be some motivational and attitudinal factors involved in the phenomenon since they identify themselves with a different group of speakers. Relatedly, however, R. Baumgardner (1995) found that for some Pakistanis the language features which distinguish Pakistani English from L1 English are a matter of pride. Similarly, according to Mahboob (2004) these differences from other varieties of English give Pakistani English its defining character. The point here is that while L1 transfer and issues of language pedagogy may be important factors in the pronunciation of Pakistani English, they are likely not the only factors. Other factors, such as the motivation to sound like a native speaker and exposure to different types of media

are likely also important. However, the relationship between these issues is poorly understood, and, as outlined above, this provides the broader context for my thesis project.

It is widely known in sociolinguistic studies that women often use a greater frequency of prestigious forms of language than men do, while men use more non-standard forms (see Labov, 1990; Labov, 2001; Trudgill, 1972). Most of the research in variationist sociolinguistics has been conducted where men and women have almost equal access to education, employment opportunities, social gatherings and other opportunities of life (e.g. Eckert, 1989; Labov, 2001; Trudgill, 1972). In countries like Pakistan, women don't get equal opportunities to men, for social, cultural and religious reasons (see Jejeebhoy & Sathar, 2001; Roomi & Parrott, 2008; Sathar, Crook, Callum, & Kazi, 1988). For instance, the degree of freedom that men enjoy in countries like Pakistan is much greater than women. Similarly, men have more chances of getting higher education than women because some families, especially in rural areas, prefer not to send their girls to schools and colleges (see Weiss, 1994). The gender divide in patriarchal societies such as Pakistani society is generally huge, which may lead to a higher sense of status consciousness and linguistic insecurity among women. In light of this, since men and women in countries like Pakistan are culturally, socially and religiously much different than those in countries like the USA, the UK etc., the gender disparity might be expected to play even greater role in their attitudes, media consumption practices and speech patterns.

Another main concern of sociolinguists has been the relationship between social class and the linguistic behaviour of the speaker. Since Labov (1966) we have known that many sociolinguistic variables are socially stratified in communities. We also know that speech communities typically agree on what count as the 'prestigious' form, as demonstrated if, for example, speakers change their speech in the same direction when style shifting. We also know

that speakers with lower socioeconomic status tend to show ‘a profound linguistic insecurity’ (Labov, 2006, p. 318). The social situation in Pakistan is complex, and is likely to be an important factor in people’s use of English. Of course, as little sociolinguistic work has been done in Pakistan, the details are at present unclear. I mention some key points here. There are different systems of education in Pakistan, catering for the needs of different students coming from different socioeconomic backgrounds. The students from the upper class are taught mostly in the private sector institutions whereas the students from the lower classes are taught in public sector institutions. There is a stark contrast in the quality of education in these two types of institutions (Rahman, 2001). Private sector elitist institutions, which are more expensive, impart better education than most of the public and other English medium institutions (Rahman, 2001). Consequently, and as expected, students from different social classes are likely to have different levels of English language competence. Also, the students from private sector are likely to favour standard (British and American English) features in their speech more than the students coming from public sector schools run by the state (Rahman, 2001). Likewise, young men and women from affluent classes are more likely to have access to several English TV channels, broadband connection, streaming services etc., giving them more exposure to native English speech than those who don’t have access to this media.

In the following subsections of this literature review, I provide a detailed review of literature focused on media consumption and language attitudes.

2.3 Media and language variation

Mass media has the potential to affect various aspects of life at the individual level, society level and institution level, but the nature and degree of effects may vary (McQuail, 1977).

Media has gained so much importance in modern society that it has become an integral part of social institutions like family, religion, politics and work (Hjarvard, 2008, p. 105). In this highly mediatized modern world, media can no longer be considered separate from cultural and other social institutions. According to McQuail (2010, p. 83), 'the main thing to emphasize is the degree to which the different media have come to be interposed between ourselves and any experience of the world beyond our immediate personal environment and our own direct sensory experience'. The concept of mediatization has been used by various researchers to understand the effects of media on several phenomena (See Hjarvard, 2004, 2008; Krotz, 2007; Schulz, 2004). Schulz (2004) has identified four ways in which media can change human communication and interaction: extension, substitution, amalgamation and accommodation. For instance, activities that previously took place through face-to-face interaction can now be performed using mediated communication. Likewise, face-to-face communication can be amalgamated with mediated communication. In the same way, media has the potential to help people to adapt their behaviour to accommodate new trends and practices (See Hjarvard, 2008). Krotz (2007) considers mediatization a continuing process that changes human relations and behaviour, bringing a change in the society and culture. In a study investigating the effects of films on university students in Bangladesh, Mahmoud (2013) found that 90% of his research participants agreed that films have an impact on their life style, outlook and attitudes.

Studies conducted on media consumption patterns and practices in Pakistan suggest that Pakistanis use a range of media types. Anjum (2012) conducted research on media consumption patterns regarding cable TV among Pakistani youth, using a survey. The study was conducted in the Pakistani city of Lahore and focused on young men and women. The findings of the research indicate that 85% of college and university students have access to cable TV. The study also found that the remaining 15% of the students who don't have access

to cable TV live in hostels. The research shows that 62% of the respondents watch cable TV programmes for 3 to 4 hours in a day. The findings also suggest that 76% of the respondents have strong interest in foreign channels and 52.3% of the participants like English language programmes.

Media has the potential to influence various aspects of our life. For instance, in a study conducted on adolescents in Pakistan (Rashid, Rahman, & Butt, 2017), it was found that there is a connection between adolescents' media consumption practices and the development of their national identity. The study was conducted in Lahore, a city in Pakistan, on school boys and girls and a questionnaire was used for data collection. The results of the study suggest that besides other factors, media consumption plays a significant role in the development of national identity. While researching the possible influence of television programmes and advertisements, A. Hassan and Daniyal (2013) found that 48% of the respondents consume TV programmes for 2-3 hours daily. The study was conducted on 400 school-going teenagers (boys and girls) from the Pakistani city of Bahawalpur. The study shows that teenagers are influenced by the programmes and commercials that they watch on TV. Most of the respondents in the study agreed that TV contents have affected their attitudes towards different aspects of life including style, fashion etc.

In a study on the influence of media on Danish language, Hjarvard (2004) observes that media plays a huge role in the spread of English and in the 'evolution of [1]media-bound varieties of language' (p.75). He also believes that media is not only the vehicle through which Anglo-American culture spreads to other cultures and societies, but also that it contributes to

[1] According to Hjarvard, media-bound varieties of language are the varieties that arise out of mediated communication. He also terms them 'medialects'

maintaining the supremacy of the English language in the world (See Hjarvard, 2003, 2004, 2008). The effects of media are not confined to the English language only. Media has also given rise to new ways of language use. Hjarvard's findings also suggest that media has played a role in the standardization of Danish language (Hjarvard, 2004).

English language teachers have been using different forms of media such as movies, television programmes, and recorded content as audio-visual aids to assist language learners for a long time. Since media programmes such as movies and shows are very popular, learners can find the incorporation of such media very exciting and motivating. Besides being motivating, the use of visual media can also help the learners by providing them realistic models of language with appropriate context (Lonergan, 1984).

With the availability of a range of audio-visual technologies, a number of audio-visual aids are extensively employed in ESL classrooms for language learning with an aim to teach one or various aspects of a second language such as English. One such example is the incorporation of films in ESL class rooms to aid language learning by providing lifelike learning situations (See Sherman, 2003). Incorporation of short portions of films in English language classrooms can help the learners to improve their English language skills (Sommer, 2001). Use of films as audio-visual aids can also play a role in improving aspects of their speech such as pronunciation and intonation patterns (See Curtis, 2007). Besides classroom activities, ESL practitioners can also advise language learners to watch English movies and practice English (Sherman, 2003). Consumption of movies can help the learners get exposure of realistic language expressions and speech flow (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003). Movies can be more helpful in non-native settings where learners do not have access to natural native speech because it can offer the language learners an alternative in the form of recorded lifelike content (Chapple & Curtis, 2000).

When we talk about the potential influence of media on language in sociolinguistics, we have to take into consideration the traditional sociolinguistic view, according to which the amount of personal interaction determines the linguistic accommodation that leads to language change (Trudgill, 1986, 1988, 2014). Trudgill (1986, p. 40) argues that 'the electronic media are not very instrumental in the diffusion of linguistic innovations, in spite of widespread popular notions to the contrary'. Diffusion is considered to be a key process in language change and variation and it takes places through accommodation which usually happens in face-to-face interaction (Trudgill, 1986, 1988) where speakers modify their language in response to their conversational partners. This implies that media cannot play any significant role in language variation and change since humans cannot have face-to-face interaction with television characters to initiate the process of diffusion. Trudgill (1986, p. 40) argues that 'the point about the TV set is that people, however much they watch and listen to it, do not talk to it (and even if they do, it cannot hear them!), with the result that no accommodation takes place'. Denying the role of television and radio and stressing the role of interaction in the study of black community speech in Philadelphia, Labov and Harris (1986) argue that 'those speakers who engage in structured interaction with whites, where they use language to negotiate their position or gain advantages, show a profound shift of their grammatical rules'(p.20). According to Chambers (1998), exposure to standard speech on television may enhance its prestige but for linguistic change to take place, interaction is required. However, in modern times, viewers can react to the videos that they watch on social media sites which shows their psychological interaction with the videos. Androutsopoulos (2013) studied the representation of German dialects on YouTube using ethnographic observation to investigate 'the multimodal performance of dialect in videos and the negotiation of these performances in audience comments' (p.47). Viewers react to YouTube videos through comments and video responses and these 'videos and comments co-occur in a patterned way and are interrelated in meaning

making' (p.50). Androutsopoulos used the term 'participatory spectacle' to refer to this 'patterned co-occurrence' of videos and comments. The nature of this co-occurrence is dialogic which suggests a sort of interaction between the videos and their audience. This suggests that media communication is not always unidirectional and devoid of interaction. It has also been known that viewers may have an imagined psychological interaction with the characters of their favorite dramas. Horton and Wohl (1956, p. 215) state, 'one of the striking characteristics of the new mass media - radio, television, and the movies - is that they give the illusion of face-to-face relationship with the performer'. They termed this 'face-to-face relationship' between the viewers and the characters a 'para-social relationship'(Horton & Wohl, 1956, p. 215). This psychological engagement with the media programmes and the characters presented in these programmes is considered to be more powerful than mere media exposure (Gunter, 2000; Horton & Wohl, 1956; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013). Likewise, in a study of Glaswegian vernacular, active media engagement with EastEnders television programmes showed a positive correlation between the linguistic variables (Stuart-Smith, 2011, 2012). This shows that mere exposure to media programmes may not play a significant role in language change. For a language change to occur, it is important that a speaker makes effort to actively engage with the media programmes. Stressing the role of media influence on Japanese language, Ota and Takano (2014, p. 199) argue that 'TV cannot change language by itself. The change needs to be caused by speakers when they want something more than what they have'. This implies that active engagement with the media programmes is more likely to play a role in language change than mere exposure to media. Bayard (1990) studied /-t/ glottalisation and post-vocalic /r/ in New Zealand English speech. These features are not usually associated with New Zealand English. He suggested that these features spread to New Zealand English through spoken media. Bayard (1990, p. 160) argues that 'an innovation may appear first through simple

copying and what might be called one-way accommodation, and then subsequently spread among peers through more normal face-to-face interaction'.

There have been a few sociolinguistic studies on the impact of media, like radio and television, on the linguistic features of speakers due to their exposure and engagement with radio and TV programmes (e.g. Carvalho, 2004; Muhr, 2003; Saladino, 1990; Stuart-Smith, 2007; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013). The advent of radio and then television was thought to provide more opportunities to non-native speakers to experience standard varieties of languages. Media producers could also play a role in the promulgation and promotion of the standard varieties of languages (Agha, 2003). It was assumed that a widespread level of exposure to standard varieties, especially through news media, would trigger a shift towards standard norms of languages considering the social prestige of the native varieties (Stuart-Smith, 2011). However, the degree of standardization that might have taken place through media acting as a change agent is not clear and the position seems to vary according to language variety and social context (Stuart-Smith, 2011).

Variationist sociolinguists working on the varieties of English in the US and the UK had for a long time largely rejected the idea of a direct role of media in language variation and change towards the standard norms because of the continued diversity of non-standard norms (Chambers, 1998; J. Milroy & Milroy, 1985). However, research conducted outside of the English-speaking world has led researchers to have a different position. For instance, research in Germany argued that there has been a widespread reduction in spoken regional dialects because of radio broadcasting (Lameli, 2004). Likewise some other studies about the possible impact of media on language change suggest that media influence on language is unavoidable (Carvalho, 2004; Muhr, 2003). Muhr (2003) is of the opinion that contact between German German and Austrian German takes place mostly through media and tourism. He rejected the

possibility of this shift of Austrian German towards German German being caused by tourism since tourism is largely concentrated in the west of Austria, and contact through tourism is limited and short. German films and series watched in Austria are recorded in Northern German which enjoys higher status and prestige almost similar to standard German. Even all the foreign media content like English movies and series are dubbed in German German (GG), maximizing the exposure of standard German. Results suggest that media programmes in German German are responsible for the shift from Austrian German to German German. It seems that the contact between two varieties of German through media has led the speakers of Austrian German to adopt features of standard German, a more dominant variety of German. Muhr identifies a number of lexical items that Austrian speakers of German have adopted from standard German. For instance, the German word 'tschüss' is used for farewell and was introduced to Austrian speakers of German through children's TV series, Sesame Street. Likewise, there has been increase of German modal 'mal' in the speech of Austrian young middle class speakers. Similarly a number of other words and expressions associated with standard German were found in the speech of young Austrian speakers.

Some of the other research works (as cited in Stuart-Smith, 2011), report the influence of media on the standardization of language varieties such as Dutch (Willemyns 2003), Telegu (Bartsch 1985), Swahili (Moehlig 1992), and Japanese (Takano and Ota 2007). On the other hand, other research studies have produced contradictory results. For instance, no statistical evidence was found in favour of the assumption that watching standard Italian on television could lead to standardization in the phonology of a south Italian dialect (Saladino, 1990). Saladino (1990) examined two variables (little exposure versus more exposure) and found no correlation between linguistic behaviour and amount of television consumption. She suggests that television can improve comprehension but not production. She concluded that merely the

presence of linguistic models cannot lead to adoption of linguistic traits. Besides the existence of linguistic models, 'covert factors such as feelings of solidarity can have great influence on whether standard language norms are adopted or not' (1990:67). Likewise, Carvalho (2004) also did not find a significant link between television exposure and the Brazilian Portuguese feature of palatalization which was spreading among her Uruguayan Portuguese participants. However, she noted during her interviews with these participants that for some individuals, television plays an important role because some of them did not only express admiration for the Brazilian Portuguese televised in different programmes but also stated clearly that they want to imitate televised Brazilian Portuguese. This signals informants' conscious orientation towards televised language forms. In her study on Portuguese, she found features of Brazilian Portuguese in the speech repertoire of Uruguayan Portuguese speakers. She collected data in the form of interviews and observation from participants living in Riveria, a town located on the Uruguayan–Brazilian border. The results show that young, middle class participants and women are more likely to produce palatalized /ti/ and /di/. Her findings suggest that Brazilian television plays an indirect role in the diffusion of palatization among speakers of Uruguayan Portuguese. Uruguayan Portuguese (UP) is considered to be a highly stigmatized variety of Portuguese which is used for oral communication in the country side. On the other hand, Brazilian Portuguese is highly prestigious variety of Portuguese mostly used in the highly urbanized centres. The findings also suggest that young people are more likely to be affected by television programmes. She adds that negative attitudes towards Uruguayan Portuguese are also one of the determining factors for the adoption of features of Brazilian Portuguese. She further adds that a number of factors like age, gender, social class and the desire to adopt features of Brazilian Portuguese motivate the speakers to exploit media programmes for the acquisition of the standard dialect. She concludes that for dialect assimilation to take place, both psychological and social motives are needed.

These sociolinguistic studies have uncovered an interesting sociolinguistic pattern in which a shift is ongoing from a potentially less socially desirable dialect towards a socially more desired one (Stuart-Smith, 2007). A study was conducted in Glasgow to investigate the influence of television on pronunciation features of 36 non-mobile working-class adolescents in Glasgow, Scotland, who exhibited increasing usage of apparently southern English features (Stuart-Smith, 2007; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013; Stuart-Smith, 2014). The project examined the influence of television (particularly London based programmes) on Glaswegian vernacular. These television shows were: The Bill (police drama), Only Fools and Horses (comedy) and EastEnders (soap drama). The project focused on three features: TH-fronting (use of [f] for /θ/ in e.g. *think, tooth),* DH-fronting (use of [v] for /ð/ in e.g. *brother)* and L-vocalisation (use of a vowel for /l/ in e.g. *milk, tell, people)*. TH-fronting, DH-fronting and L-vocalization are features of the Cockney accent of London . They also investigated the possible effect of television on Scottish vowel quality and non-realisation of postvocalic /r/. They compared these features in the speech of Glaswegian adolescents with that of characters of different episodes of 'media-cockney' such as EastEnders. The speech samples collected from the participants were analysed using an auditory method (for consonants) and acoustic analysis (for vowels). Regression tests were performed to see the relationship between above mentioned features and the linguistic and social factors. They found that Glaswegians adolescents use more of the variants than the characters. They also did not find any correlation between attitudes towards London-based programmes and attitudes towards London accents. Findings of the study confirm that in addition to other social factors, there is a positive correlation between the linguistic variables (th, dh) and engagement with EastEnders television programmes. However, she suggests that there is a need for more such studies to measure the influence of all type of media on language variation and change in different contexts by including media exposure and engagement as a social factor in future variationist studies (Stuart-Smith, 2014).

Some of the studies discussed above suggest that there is a relationship between media engagement and language. Nevertheless, there has been a dearth of literature that deals with language variation and change in situations, such as Pakistan, where 2nd language speakers hardly have any face-to-face contact with native speakers which means that diffusion of innovations cannot take place (Trudgill, 1986), and yet speakers are reported to have some native features (Rahman, 2001). From this, the question arises, to what extent do Pakistani speakers have 'native' English features when there is hardly any face-to-face interaction with native speakers of English from the UK or the USA and what is the possible channel for the spread of these linguistic innovations? This thesis will try to answer this broad question by exploring the possible influence of media in the spread of these linguistic innovations among Pakistani speakers of English by measuring the type and degree of media consumption of the participants (and its relationship between socioeconomic status and gender, as outlined above). For instance, do the speakers who can afford and consume more British media and American media produce more British English and American English features than those who do not watch American and British channels or consume other kind of media like Urdu or Hindi channels?

To sum up, there has been controversy regarding the role of media in language variation and change. Those who reject the role of media in language variation and change believe that face-to-face contact is a principal factor in language change. In a native English context, perhaps it is very challenging to tease apart media influence from social interaction because of the unavoidability of interaction between speakers of different native varieties. Even if the research participants are geographically non-mobile, there are possibilities to interact with geographically mobile visitors, relatives and friends. Perhaps that is why, the statistically significant relationship between media use and linguistic behaviour was rarely found.

Moreover, the studies conducted on media influence attempted to examine the correlation between participants' accents and specific media programmes by measuring the amount of consumption of that particular media programme which, I think, overlooks the amount of time the speakers engage with media programmes of a particular variety of language. Using methods that can measure the amount of media consumption of all media types (news, shows, movies, music, talks etc.) recorded in a certain variety of language (such as GA and RP) presented through a variety of mediums (TV, YouTube, social media, online streaming etc.) and used for a variety of purposes (entertainment, language learning etc.) may be a better way of measuring media influence. In non-native research contexts such as Pakistan, the problem of measuring the influence of media consumption is less complicated because non-native contexts offer a more suitable research population which is mostly non-mobile and where the possibility of social interaction with native speakers of English is extremely rare. This study therefore offers a suitable context to investigate the role of media in language variation and change by examining the role of media consumption in the adoption of native like features of English by Pakistani speakers of English.

2.4 Defining Attitude

The study of attitudes has received considerable attention by researchers in the fields of psychology and sociolinguistics (See Agheyisi & Fishman, 1970; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Garrett, Coupland, & Williams, 2003; Robert M McKenzie, 2007). There is no unanimously agreed definition of the term 'attitude'. Many researchers have tried to define it in accordance with the discipline of their field and nature of their research. There are two major schools of thought about attitudes: mentalist and behaviourist approaches. In a mentalist perspective, attitude is defined "as an internal state aroused by stimulation of some type and which may

mediate the organism's subsequent response" (Williams, 1974, p. 21). According to a behaviourist view of attitudes, attitudes can be observed only in real life social interactions, which are termed as overt behaviour. Fasold (1987) believes that this kind of behaviour is easier to see and understand but cannot be used as a predictor of other types of behaviour. The mentalist perspective breaks down attitudes into feelings, beliefs and behaviour (see Fasold, 1987; Lambert, 1967) and is followed by the majority of researchers (see Fasold, 1987). While defining attitudes, the social neuroscientists Petty and Cacioppo (1981, p. 6) are of the opinion that, the term attitude 'should be used to refer to a general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue'. According to the social psychologists, Eagly and Chaiken (2005, p. 745), attitude is 'a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour'.

According to Sarnoff (1970, p. 279), attitude is a favourable or unfavourable reaction to a particular object. This definition seems to describe 'attitude' as a disposition towards certain stimuli, and these dispositions towards certain objects are stable enough to be measured and evaluated (Bohner & Wänke, 2002; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). From the above definitions, we can see that term attitude is being treated as psychological tendency towards certain stimuli. We can form favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards all kinds of objects including personalities, concepts, material objects, and languages. People form attitudes about different aspects of their own language, foreign languages, language policies, and about speakers of different languages.

There are cognitive, affective and behavioural sides to attitudes. The cognitive side of attitudes refers to the belief of a certain person about a certain object under observation. The affective side of attitudes refers to the emotional reaction of a certain person about certain object. The behavioural side refers to the person's behaviour or action in relation to a certain object. For

instance, to give an example relevant to this thesis, a Pakistani speaker's belief (Cognitive aspect) that the British accent can help him get a better job can make him eager (Affective aspect) to learn the British accent. This belief and eagerness for British accent may help him work hard to acquire British accent (Behavioural aspect). This means that attitudes have the potential to trigger certain types of behaviour. However, there are no clear-cut demarcation lines between these three aspects or categories of attitudes. Moreover, an attitude towards a certain object may not always represent all three categories (Bohner & Wänke, 2002). Since attitude is a hypothetical construct, it may not be observed directly but can be inferred from observable responses (Baker, 1992; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; R. M. McKenzie, 2008). When a person is exposed to a certain object, he / she forms a disposition towards the object which is termed as an 'attitude'. This attitude may embrace just one or two or all aspects of above mentioned categories (Bohner & Wänke, 2002).

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the behavioural aspect is one possible component of attitudes. This means that attitudes are expressed and observed in people's behaviour. This assumption that there is a relationship between attitudes and behaviour has led researchers to assume that attitudes can be, to some extent, helpful in explaining human behavioural patterns (Cargile, Giles, Ryan, & Bradac, 1994). It is assumed that behavioural patterns can be used to evaluate an individual's attitudes towards certain stimuli. In the same way, attitudes can be a predictor of possible human behaviour. However, attitudes may not always be good predictors of human behaviour (See Hanson, 1980; LaPiere, 1934; Wicker, 1969)

According to the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), attitudes influence an individual's intentions of behaving in certain manner, controlling his actions or behaviour. This theory suggests that actions or behaviour are basically the outcome of intentions. However, all intentions do not lead to actions merely because of attitudes, there may be some social factors

involved in carrying out certain intentions. This means that human behaviour is not only controlled by attitudes but also by the social pressure exercised on person by the perceived social norms. This theory assumes that an individual very rationally evaluates his particular behaviour keeping in mind the social norms (Robert M McKenzie, 2007). Therefore this theory underlines the importance of `the social context within which any individual operates, and how this may affect the relative importance of private attitudes' (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 8).

The link between intention and behaviour is further explained by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to this theory, an individual's intention to act in certain manner is influenced by the perception of his or her own ability to perform that action. For instance, a person's perception of whether or not he or she can afford to learn a certain language may strengthen or weaken his or her intention to learn a particular language. Thus all intentions may not always be strong enough to lead to certain behaviour. In other words, attitudes may or may not lead to observable behaviour. This also strengthens the view that attitudes may not always be categorized into three categories: cognitive, affective and behavioural. However, both theories seem to suggest that attitudes can partially lead to certain behaviour.

2.5 Language attitudes

Generally, a rubric term 'language attitude' is employed to cover all the studies attempting to measure and evaluate attitudes towards various dimensions of language (Baker, 1992, p. 29). A language attitude project may focus on attitudes towards language dialects, language learning, speech styles, language preferences and many other aspects of language.

Language attitudes research is an important area in the field of sociolinguistics and is mostly carried out by sociolinguists interested in understanding the relationship between language use

patterns and social paradigms and practices (Campbell-Kibler, 2005). Studies measuring attitudes towards different varieties of a language help sociolinguists explain the social and psychological processes involved in linguistic patterns and practices (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 12).

2.5.1 Attitudes of Native Speakers of English

Giles (1970) conducted research on 177 school children to investigate their attitudes towards thirteen accents of English. These thirteen accents were RP, [2]Affected RP, North American, French, German, South Welsh, Irish, Italian, Northern English, Somerset, Cockney, Indian and Birmingham. RP was rated highest on the status dimension by the respondents. On the other hand, Irish, regional accents of South Welsh or Northern England were rated in the middle on status dimension. However, the latter received higher score on the solidarity dimension. Similarly, a study was conducted by Cheyne (1970) on Scottish and English respondents to investigate their attitudes towards Scottish and English accents. The results of the study indicated that both Scottish and English participants ranked English accents higher than Scottish ones on status dimensions. However, on the solidarity scale of 'friendliness', Scottish accents were rated higher than English ones. Similar results were reported by another study (Milroy & McClenaghan 1977) in which RP was ranked higher on status dimensions and lower than Scottish and Ulster accents on solidarity scales.

Examining the attitudes of American respondents towards American English and RP, Stewart, Ryan, and Giles (1985) reported that the American accent was rated higher than RP on dimensions of solidarity. On the contrary, RP was rated higher than American English on social

[2] Exaggerated or affected form of RP commonly associated with the aristocracy

status dimensions. In another attitude study on American English, Preston (1989) found that English used in the North is rated higher on dimension of ‘correctness’ than that used in the South. Even respondents from the south ranked their speech lower than northern speech on scale of ‘correctness’. However, northern speech was rated lower than south speech by both northern and southern respondents on scale of ‘pleasantness’.

Investigating the perceptions of over 400 students in New Zealand, Australia and the USA towards RP, American English, Australian and New Zealand English using Likert scale questionnaires, Bayard et al. (2001) found that American speech was rated higher than other accents on dimensions of solidarity, status, competence and power. It is worth noting that RP was not rated as high as in some other work (e.g. Giles, 1970; Hiraga, 2005). Bayard et al. (2001, p. 22) argue that ‘the American accent seems well on the way to equalling or even replacing RP as the prestige - or at least preferred -variety'. They further argue that the shift of prestige from RP to American English could possibly be the result of media influence and it is the reflection of ‘American global hegemony in all its guises: fast foods, pop music, films, middle-class TV sitcom’(Bayard et al., 2001, p. 41). They further argue that ‘shift of overseas prestige standards in New Zealand has been caused at least to some extent by the spoken media’ particularly television(Bayard et al., 2001, p. 41). Speculating about the impact of media on attitudes, Bayard et al. (2001, p. 43) suggested that one way to examine the ‘impact of global broadcast media on attitudes’ is to investigate the accent preferred by L2 speakers in non-English speaking countries’.

In another research study, Hiraga (2005) examined the attitudes of 32 Southern English participants towards six accents of English from Britain and America. These accents were: RP, Network American, New York accent, Birmingham accent, Alabama accent and Yorkshire accent. American English is also sometimes referred to as Network American English when

used in the media industry (Wells 1982). The results show that RP was ranked the highest in terms of status, whereas the Birmingham accent was rated the lowest. On the solidarity scale, the Yorkshire accent received the highest rating whereas the New York City accent received the lowest. Though RP was rated higher than standard American on the status dimension, on the solidarity dimension, standard American was ranked higher than RP. Hiraga employed ten personality traits of status and solidarity. The traits were educated, intelligent, wealthy, successful and elegant for status and sociable, sincere, comforting, friendly and reliable for solidarity. The findings of this research are in agreement with previous studies in which respondents rated highest the standard varieties such as RP and American English on the status dimension, whereas on the solidarity dimension, they ranked highest the non-standard varieties such as the accents of Yorkshire and Alabama.

In all the above-mentioned studies we can see that standard British and American speech are rated higher than non-standard varieties of English in prestige. However, often, but not always (Preston, 1989), non-standard varieties received higher score on solidarity scale when the respondents were the speakers of these varieties of English. These findings can be explained in the light of 'inherent value' and 'imposed norm' hypothesis (Trudgill, 1974, 1983; Trudgill & Giles, 1976). According to the notion of 'inherent value', a certain variety of accent or dialect is inherently pleasant and thus likely to be perceived positively. On the other hand, the concept of 'imposed norm' or 'social connotations' (Trudgill & Giles, 1976) suggests that the status of a variety of an accent or a dialect is associated with the social status of its speakers. This connection between the accent and social status of speakers influences the perceptions of people about a certain accent and they evaluate that accent accordingly. Another somewhat similar approach suggests that language attitudes and perceptions can be triggered by three possible factors: inherent language superiorities or inferiorities, inherent aesthetic features of

that language, and social norms and preferences (Edwards 1982, 1999). Language researchers believe that language attitudes towards certain dialect or accent are basically the expression of social perceptions of the speakers of that variety of dialect or accent (Edwards 1982, 1999).

To conclude the discussion on attitudes of native speakers of English, RP is rated more favourably by native speakers than other regional accents of English. An important point that one of the studies has made is that there is a possible influence of media on the attitudes and preferences of participants towards different accents of English, and there is a need to investigate how media influences attitudes in L2 contexts. This is related to the present study because one of the aims of this research is to examine the relationship between attitudes and media consumption of second language speakers of English in Pakistan.

2.5.2 Attitudes of Second Language Speakers of English

The research studies conducted on non-native speakers' attitudes towards British English(meaning specifically RP here) and GA suggest that people consider RP to be the most prestigious variety of English (see Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, & Smit, 1997; Ladegaard & Sachdev, 2006). For instance, Taylor (2000 as cited in Ladegaard & Sachdev, 2006) studied attitudes towards different accents of English in the UK among 83 EFL students from 21 different countries and found that learners have more positive attitudes towards RP than other accents, including an American accent. Moreover, he noted the same positive attitude towards RP from students who were educated in American English medium schools in South America and Asia. In another study conducted outside the UK, similar findings were obtained (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997). Similarly, Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006) conducted a study on attitudes and perceptions about British and American English among Danish EFL students and found that RP was reported as a preferred model of pronunciation.

An important issue in English language learning and teaching in Pakistan is the type of English to be learnt and taught in educational institutions. Pakistan was once a British colony, so the model of English generally followed is British English. As noted above, since speaking and listening proficiency is not assessed in the Pakistani examination system, the focus has been more on writing and reading. Attitude studies conducted on English in Pakistan show that British English is the preferred model. For instance, in a study conducted on ESL speakers' attitudes and perceptions towards Standard British English and Pakistani English, Parveen and Mehmood (2013) found that Pakistani learners of English preferred to learn standard British English, including a Standard British English accent. The attitudinal information was collected from 25 males and females using a questionnaire. The research does not provide information about the social background of the participants. The results showed that 80% of the participants reported that they liked to speak English. Moreover, 60 % the participants of agreed that the British accent is prestigious and 76% reported a preference to sound like native speakers of English. The findings also showed that the majority of participants considered Pakistani English as a separate variety of English. This research provides information about standard British English and Pakistani English and does not consider American English. Given other research which has suggested an increase in popularity of American English varieties (e.g. Bayard et al., 2001), we might ask whether the prestige of GA is also increasing in Pakistan, perhaps at the expense of RP .

In another study conducted in Pakistan , Jabeen et al. (2011) found that the majority (69%) of the participants reported that they wanted to speak English. The study also showed that 20% of the respondents expressed their preference for an American accent and 24% reported liking for British accent which is disagreement with the findings of previous study (Parveen & Mehmood, 2013). On the other hand, 56% of the respondents showed highly positive attitudes

towards Pakistani accent. The study employed questionnaire, and was conducted on one hundred students from a city in central Punjab, Pakistan. The study does not provide any social background of the participants, which is important because sociodemographic factors are likely to play a role in attitudes and preferences towards different accents of English. In another research on English language learners' attitudes towards learning English as a second language, it was found that learners have positive attitudes towards learning English because it gives them access to international markets (Khalid, 2016). The study also found that learners hold Urdu in high esteem because it stands for national integration being a national language. This study was conducted on sixteen year old school students using interview and questionnaire methods.

The discussion on language attitudes and, relatedly, the construction of speakers' identities is relevant here because one of the aims of this thesis is to study the attitudes among Pakistani speakers towards varieties of English, particularly to American English, British English and Pakistani English, and to see how these attitudes might lead Pakistani speakers of English to identify themselves as, or otherwise associate with, speakers of American English, British English and Pakistani English. For instance, some speakers may have positive attitudes towards American English and Pakistani English but they may prefer to learn and speak with a British accent. Likewise, some speakers may have positive attitudes towards the British English (RP) and Pakistani English but they like to speak with an American accent. Or, they may have equally positive attitude towards British and American accent of English but they like to speak with a Pakistani accent. It is also possible that some of the speakers may have different forms of English (e.g. American English, British English and Pakistani English) as a part of their social capital and use them to index different identities in different situations (see Coupland, 1980; Labov, 1966; Trudgill, 1974).

2.6 Varieties of English selected for this study

British English (RP) and American English (GA) are considered to be standard forms of English in all non-native countries such as India and Pakistan. This makes these varieties of English suitable for the present study. Pakistani English is a variety of English widely used in Pakistan, which, as I discussed above, is seen by speakers as a variety in its own right (see Jabeen et al., 2011; Parveen & Mehmood, 2013). The inclusion of these three varieties of English accents in this study allows me to explore the beliefs of Pakistani speakers of English to see whether or not these second language speakers of English rate these accents of English in a similar way. The RP accent is considered to be highly prestigious among British varieties of English mostly used by the educated middle and upper classes (Bauer, 2016; L. Milroy, 1999). On the other hand, General American English consists of varieties used in the North of America with no noticeable regional variations (Wells 1982).

2.7 Language-Attitude Correlation

Some studies investigating the relationship between language and attitudes (language-attitude correlation) suggest that attitudes do not play any role in language change and variation. For instance, according to Trudgill (2004, 2008), it is the amount of personal interaction between speakers which determines the degree of linguistic accommodation. He argues that 'dialect mixture resulting from accommodation in dialect contact situations played a role in determining the nature of new colonial varieties of European languages' and 'national colonial identity factors are most unlikely to have played an influential role'(Trudgill, 2008, p. 244). Likewise, Labov (2001, p. 191) argues that 'we do not often find correlations between degrees of local identification and the progress of sound change'. Some other studies conducted to

investigate the role of attitudes on linguistic behaviour did not find statistically significant relationship between the two (e.g. Ladegaard, 2000; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013).

However, some studies conducted on language-attitude correlation have shown that attitudes amay play a role in language variation and change. For instance in a study conducted on dialectal change in South-East Norway, Johnsen (2015) found that people in South-East Norway don't adopt linguistic features of the upper Oslo speech community, and argued that this is because of their negative attitudes.

According to accommodation theory (Giles, Coupland, & Coupland, 1991), speakers adjust their speech styles with reference to their conversational partners. Communication Accommodation Theory also suggests that a language user exploits language to achieve a desired social distance between the himself/herself and his/her conversation partner (Shepard, Giles, Le Poire, & Robinson, 2001). Convergence occurs in a situation where the speaker adjusts their speech to make it similar to their conversational partner, while divergence occurs when a speaker changes their speech to make it less similar. According to the similarity attraction hypothesis (Byrne, 1971), individuals try to become like those towards whom they feel attracted. Likewise some studies (See Babel, 2012; Pardo, Gibbons, Suppes, & Krauss, 2012; Wang, 2017) investigating the correlation between language and attitudes have provided some evidence in support of an attitudinal role in linguistic convergence. In recent work, Wang (2017) used quantitative and qualitative methods to examine the influence of attitudes on linguistic behaviour. Her work investigated the role of attitudes in the formation of a new vernacular called Hū Pǔ in China. She found that speakers' attitudes were found to be significant predictors of speakers' linguistic behaviour.

Some sociolinguists stress the awareness and the salience of linguistic features as an important step in the process of acquisition of certain linguistic features (Auer, Barden, & Grosskopf, 1998; Carvalho, 2004; Siegel, 2010). Labov (1963) also stressed the salience of linguistic features in studying the direction of relationship between linguistic behaviour and attitudes. On the other hand, a recent study (Nycz, 2016) found that acquisition of dialect features can take place even when speakers do not have explicit awareness of those dialect features. Nycz (2016) conducted her study on native speakers of Canadian English living in New York region and found that acquisition of linguistic feature could take place unconsciously through an automatic accommodation process. She also suggested that the process of accommodation could be affected by the explicit awareness of the linguistic variable and its social meaning. However, the convergence of linguistic features with a low level of awareness would take place unhampered. Also, findings of another study suggest that positive and negative attitudes influence speakers' production of linguistic features even when they are not explicitly aware of them (Drager & Kirtley, 2016). This suggests that attitudes are important in linguistic accommodation in situations where speakers are explicitly aware of the linguistic variables and their social meanings whereas in situations where speakers are not explicitly aware of the linguistic features, attitude may not play any role.

According to Ajzen and Cote (2008), attitudes may be helpful in predicting general patterns of human behaviour but they poor predictors of specific behaviour. With regard to the use of overt and covert attitudes in predicting human behaviour, Bohner and Dickel (2011) suggest that covert attitudes can generally be used to predict impulsive and less controllable behaviour whereas overt attitudes can be used to predict intentional and controllable behaviour.

A range of methodologies for collecting attitudinal information have been used by researchers to investigate the nature of the relationship between attitudes and linguistic behaviour. For

instance, many studies employed qualitative methods such as interviews to collect information about the attitudes of participants. For instance, in a study conducted on a variety of British English used in Middlesbrough, a large industrial town in North Yorkshire, Llamas (2007) employed an interview and a questionnaire containing seven general questions to collect attitudinal information from the participants. Her study focused on the use of glottalized voiceless stops (p t k) by the local speakers. She found that attitudinal information obtained through discussion in the interviews correlated with local speakers' linguistic convergence with North Eastern variants and divergence from Yorkshire forms, showing their changing sense of linguistic identity towards North Eastern features. Likewise using a similar methodology, Hilton (2010) investigated the nature of the correlation between participants' attitudes and their linguistic production in her study of Honefoss, an industrial town in Norway. Another example is Clark and Watson (2016), who used interviews to collect attitudinal information from the participants in their study of levelling and diffusion of realisation of /t/ as [h] in Liverpool, UK. Their findings suggest that positive and negative attitudes towards Skelmersdale and Liverpool influence the realisation of /t/.

Some studies have employed quantitative methods to measure the attitudes of speakers. For instance, in a study of the Northern English dialect of York, Haddican, Foulkes, Hughes, and Richards (2013) employed a simple method of attitude measurement in which they summed the scores assigned to each of four questions in a questionnaire which related to participants' local identity and attitudes. The findings of the study showed that there was significant correlation between speakers' attitudes towards the local community and their extent of adoption of FACE/GOAT diphthongization.

On the other hand, some other attitude studies used the Verbal Guise Technique (VGT) and Matched Guise Technique (MGT) to measure attitudes quantitatively. For instance, in a study

conducted on young male and female participants, Ladegaard (2000) used both the verbal guise technique and a questionnaire to measure attitudes. He did not find any correlation between linguistic behaviour and attitudes measured through the verbal guise technique. However, attitudes measured using the questionnaire supported the hypothesis that male speakers use more vernacular features and hold more positive attitudes towards the local vernaculars. He then stressed the need for using eclectic methods to measure attitudes in attitude-behaviour relations. In a study conducted on the effect of television on the speech of young speakers in inner-city, Glasgow , Stuart-Smith et al. (2013) found a correlation between speakers' accent and their psychological engagement with a London-based soap opera. They did not find a significant relationship between speakers' speech and their attitudes measured using a perceptual test. They emphasized the need of measuring attitudes in an 'implicit manner via questions not specifically about language/dialect, but strongly associated concepts' (Stuart-Smith et al., 2013, p. 528).

To sum up, there has been controversy regarding the role of attitudes in linguistic behaviour. It is believed that attitudes do not play any role in language variation and change because only social interaction leads to language variation. In the native context, perhaps it is very difficult to tease apart language attitudes from social interaction. Perhaps that is why, the statistically significant relationship between attitudes and linguistic behaviour was rarely reported except a few studies(e.g. Haddican et al., 2013; Wang, 2017). In L2 contexts, this problem is less complicated because of the lack of direct contact between the native and non-native speakers. This study, therefore, offers a suitable context to investigate the role of attitudes in language variation and change by exploring the role of attitudes in the adoption of native-like features of English by Pakistani speakers of English.

2.8 Linguistic variables included in this study

This study will explore the effect of both media exposure and attitudes on linguistic variation and so in this section, I review literature on the linguistic variables included in this study. The two phonetic variables selected for the production analysis in this study are /r/ and /t/. They were analyzed to see how they are produced by speakers in different phonological positions. I investigated how /t/ is realized by Pakistani speakers in intervocalic positions to see whether they produce an alveolar/canonical [t], a flap [ɾ] or a retroflex [ʈ]. I examined the variation in production of /r/ in different environments to see whether Pakistani speakers produce or omit /r/ in the final and pre consonantal positions, and also examined the articulation of the /r/ to see whether it is an approximant or a trill.

These features were chosen because they offer a range of variation across three accents of English namely, American, British and Pakistani. Stop /t/ was chosen because in the Pakistani accent of English, the retroflexion of /t/ is an important feature which is often associated with Urdu. In RP, /t/ is alveolar and plosive and in General American English, /t/ is often flapped in intervocalic positions (Wells, 1982). Likewise, /r/ also offers range of variation across three accents. The American and Pakistani accents of English are rhotic whereas RP is a non-rhotic accent. Moreover, the realization of the /r/ sound is different across the three accents in the medial and final positions. For example, /r/ is not realized in the pre-consonantal, post-vocalic and absolute final positions in Received Pronunciation. In the Pakistani accent of English, /r/ is realized as a trill. On the other hand, in the American accent, /r/ is realized as an approximant.

2.8.1 Sociolinguistic variation in /t/

The stop consonant /t/ can be categorised into different categories depending on the way /t/ is realised because of its place and manner of articulation. The /t/ may be pronounced as a tap [ɾ], as found in GA, mainly between vowels (either within a single word or across word boundaries). In the articulation of taps, the tongue makes a single tap against the alveolar ridge (Ladefoged & Johnstone, 2009, p. 15). In some cases, the /t/ can also be dropped or elided in some positions or it may be produced as a glottal.

In British English, the realization of /t/ varies depending on speakers' background and region of origin (See Wells 1982). Some studies have examined various features like glottalization (See Foulkes & Docherty, 1999; Wells 1982) and affrication (Buizza & Plug, 2012). Generally, /t/ in RP and in some other English accents is realized as a voiceless alveolar plosive.

Tapping is one of the characteristic features of American English (Wells 1982) and Canadian English (De Wolf, 1990; Woods, 1991) which generally occurs in unstressed position in words such as 'better', 'waiting', 'water'. In these words, the alveolar stop /t/ is realized as a tap [ɾ]. According to Wells (1982), the phenomenon of tapping affects both /t/ and /d/ in general American English and it can occur both within a word such as 'getting' /gɛɾɪŋ/ and across a word boundary such as 'get it in' /gɛɾɪɾ ɪn/ (p.248). The necessary condition for the tapping to occur is that alveolar stop should be preceded by a sonorant (vowel, liquid or nasal) and followed by a vowel or a syllabic [l].

In some varieties of English like Indian and Pakistani English, /t/ is realized as retroflex (Mahboob, 2004; Wells 1982). In Pakistani English, it is the place of articulation for /t/ that makes it different from other types of /t/s, British and American. Pakistani speakers, generally, produce a more retroflex kind of /t/ (degree of retroflexion may vary) unlike Standard English

/t/ which is alveolar and aspirated. Some research studies conducted on Asian speakers living in Britain have found the use of retroflex variants in their speech (Alam & Stuart-Smith, 2011; Heselwood & McChrystal, 2000; Sharma & Sankaran, 2011a). For instance, Sharma and Sankaran (2011b) investigated the retention of Punjabi accent features by British Asians in London. They examined the use of one Punjabi feature (t-retroflection) and one British feature (t-glottaling) across three groups: first generation non-native immigrants and two age groups of second-generation British Asians (older and younger). The work shows that there is a gradual decrease in the Punjabi accent features across the three groups: the first India-born generation realized retroflex /t/ 35% of the time, the second UK-born generation realized retroflex /t/ 16% of the time and the younger UK-born generation realized it 8.4% of the time. Men produced more retroflex /t/ than women. Heselwood and McChrystal (2000) conducted a perception experiment to investigate the presence of Punjabi accent features in Punjabi bilingual children living in Bradford. The findings suggested that male bilingual children exhibited more influence of Punjabi than female children in the articulation of vowels and alveolar stops.

In some studies, variation in the realisation of /t/ has been interpreted as an expression of speakers' identity. In a study done on Asian speech, Alam and Stuart-Smith (2011) conducted an analysis of syllable-initial /t/ in data collected from Pakistani girls studying in a Glasgow high school using participant observation to explore their shared and differing social practices. They found two contrasting communities of practice where more conservative girls adhere to traditional cultural practices and more rebellious ones tend to challenge these traditional norms. They concluded that the fine phonetic variation is basically indexical of local ethnic identity. Likewise, Sharma (2011) investigated the use of ethnically marked variants among British-

born Asians using the [3]repertoire approach. She found variation in the realization of /t/ in the speech of individual speakers and concluded that both men and women use a variety of /t/ realizations in different interactional contexts.

2.8.2 Sociolinguistic variation in /r/

The articulation of the /r/ phoneme has been of great importance in research on varieties of English in native and non-native contexts. The varieties which do not realise /r/ in the postvocalic positions, like RP, are termed non-rhotic and others, like General American English, are described as rhotic(Wells 1982) . Both General American English and RP are considered highly prestigious varieties of English globally. In non-rhotic accents of English, /r/ is not pronounced in the post-vocalic, pre-consonantal and absolute final positions. For instance, 'park' is pronounced as /pa:k/ and car is pronounced as /ka:/ in non-rhotic varieties of English. Varieties of English used in most of England, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa are generally non-rhotic (Wells 1982). On the other hand, in Rhotic accents of English, /r/ is articulated in all phonological environments, including post-vocalic, pre-consonantal and absolute final positions. For instance, 'park' is articulated as /pa:rk/ and 'car' is pronounced as /ka:r/. Varieties of English used in most of the USA, Canada, some parts of England, Scotland, Ireland, India and Pakistan are generally rhotic.

According to Mahboob and Ahmar (2008), Pakistani English is mainly a rhotic variety of English. The study was based on the recording samples of 6 educated Pakistani speakers that include four female and two male speakers aged between 22 and 37. These audio samples were collected using the 'Sheffield word list' and the 'North Wind' reading passage. The findings

[3] Repertoire approach studies the set of language varieties (registers, dialects, styles, accents, etc.) that a person uses within his/her speech community

suggest that /r/ is realized in all contexts including in words like ‘start’, ‘care’ and ‘letter’ but dropped in the word ‘force’. This suggests that /r/ in postvocalic position is a variable feature in Pakistani English. Mahboob and Ahmar (2008) stressed the need for further exploration of this variation. The study does not provide any information about the social background of the participants. In another study, Rahman (1991) suggests that rhoticity in Pakistani English is socially conditioned and that the speakers of the Acrolect variety of Pakistani English may or may not produce it in postvocalic positions. He does not provide any information about the distribution of postvocalic /r/ in the Acrolect variety of Pakistani English. He also found that /r/ is realized in all words in all contexts in the Mesolect and Basilect varieties of Pakistani English (See chapter 2 for discussion on Pakistani English). His work was based on word list recordings from 10 Pakistani speakers living in the UK.

This study explores the variation in the production of /r/ in post-vocalic positions, contributing to a large number of studies dealing with /r/ variation (e.g. Chand, 2010; Labov, 1972; Sharma, 2005). This study is particularly important in the Pakistani context where there is a dearth of studies conducted on /r/ realisation. The Pakistani accent of English has generally been described as a rhotic accent by some researchers, and there is not enough work, to the best of my knowledge, that deals with the production of /r/ in the postvocalic position. This study investigates the amount of non-realisation and realisation of /r/ in postvocalic position in the NURSE and FORCE lexical sets. Furthermore, it examines the variation in the realisation of /r/-variants to see whether /r/ is realised as a trill as in the Pakistani accent or as an approximant as in the General American accent (Wells 1982). The tokens of /r/ included in this study appear either in the pre-consonantal coda position (e.g. ‘purse’, ‘world’, ‘park’) or word finally (e.g. ‘car’)

2.9 Summary

Existing research in sociolinguistics has studied mainly native speakers or the speech of L2 speakers of English who either live in English speaking countries or have spent majority of their life living in English speaking countries (Gnevsheva, 2015b; Sharma, 2011). There is a dearth of research that deals with the sociolinguistic studies of L2 speakers who are living and have spent majority of their life living in their home countries where English is used as a second language, like Pakistan. Even the studies conducted on English in Pakistan do not take into account social and demographic factors, and we know relatively little about how social factors might influence the L2 of Pakistani speakers. This work addresses this gap by exploring a sociolinguistic perspective of L2 English speech. Moreover, this thesis adds to the knowledge of how media exposure and engagement influences language variation and change. This project explores whether the kind of media speakers engage with influences their accent. I hypothesize that the type and degree of media consumption is likely to have an impact on the speech production of Pakistani speakers of English along with factors like language attitudes, socioeconomic status and gender. That is people with more British and American media consumption would exhibit British (RP) and General American speech features in their accents. Similarly, people with more positive attitudes toward British and American accents will exhibit British (RP) and General American speech features in their accents.

2.10 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have outlined the contextual background and presented a review of the literature about attitudes studies, media consumption studies and language variation. I have also presented a detailed account of the linguistic variables included in this study. In the next

chapter, a detailed account of the methods ranging from data collection to data analysis will be presented.

3 Methodology

This research was carried out in three phases. I discuss these phrases in detail below, but first provide an overview. In phase one, I used a questionnaire to collect sociodemographic, attitudinal and media-consumption information from 407 participants. Participants were Pakistani speakers of English, and were approached through Facebook, via advertising posters and by visiting colleges and universities in Pakistan, inviting people to consider taking part in the survey. Participants were asked questions about their attitudes towards the British accent, American Accent and Pakistani accent of English and their preference in using these varieties. An important part of the questionnaire asked questions about the media consumption of the participants. For instance, questions asked what kind of media participants watched and listened to, and how much time they engage with different media programmes. On the basis of their questionnaire responses, 54 speakers aged between 18 and 25 belonging to different background were selected for phase two of the study. These 54 speakers were audio recorded in an interview to collect speech data. Each interview lasted for 20 minutes on average and questions were about their education, hobbies, social life, languages, and also about their media engagement. A ‘media diary’(Adebesin, 2013) was also used to collect data about the media engagement of these 54 participants. This diary, in which participants recorded their weekly media engagement, was completed by each participant for the duration of one week. In the third phase, the Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE), an instance of the Language Brain and Behaviour Corpus Annotation Tool (LaBB-CAT), was designed and established to facilitate the analysis of selected phonetic features.

This chapter outlines the methods and procedures I followed for this research. First, a detailed account of data collection tools is given in section 3.1. Discussion on data analysis procedures and methodologies is given in 3.2. The statistical tools and procedures are explained in section 3.3, followed by a detailed account of the dependent variables in section 3.4. Discussion of independent variables is presented in section 3.5 followed by chapter summary in section 3.6.

3.1 Data collection Tools

The population for this thesis is second language speakers of English who have spent the majority of their life in Pakistan. The primary reason for choosing Pakistani speakers of English as the population for the present project is that there is a dearth of research produced on Pakistani English speech. A secondary reason was that I wanted to choose a setting where English is spoken as second language and speakers do not have direct contact with native speakers of English like American and British. The young speakers were selected because it was assumed that they have more interest in media and are more prone to innovative linguistic change and it was therefore expected that they would show more linguistic variation (Carvalho, 2004).

The study deals with young men and women and all the participants are full time or part time students in Pakistani colleges and universities. There is not much range of variation among the participants. They are all undergraduate students taught by Pakistani teachers. Most of the participants who took part in the survey are from Islamabad and Rawalpindi, twin cities of Pakistan. A large number of the target population was approached through posters, Facebook posts and emails to heads of departments and teachers of different colleges and universities in Rawalpindi and Islamabad. 160 women and 247 men took part in the online survey and many of them expressed their willingness to participate in the second phase by providing their email.

Based on their questionnaire responses, 100 participants were invited for the second phase of the research which involved keeping a media diary and an interview. Fifty four participants took part in the second phase of the research, which is a decent size sample for this kind of study. Their language attitudes and media consumption were also given some consideration while choosing them for the second phase so as to include speakers with a range of different attitudes and media consumption practices. All of the participants who took part in the interview were enrolled in different academic programmes in different universities in Islamabad, the capital city of Pakistan.

3.1.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed to obtain information about media consumption and language attitudes towards different varieties of English (American, British and Pakistani), as well as demographic information. I used a questionnaire methodology because of its popularity in attitude research and the ability to collect responses on many dimensions from large number of participants (See Bradac, Cargile, & Hallett, 2001); and questionnaire responses can be easily analysed using statistical methods (Gallois, Cretchley, & Watson, 2012). The survey was administered online by approaching and inviting participants to take part in the survey. The questionnaire can be categorised into 3 categories: basic demographic information, media consumption and language attitudes. The first part of the survey collects demographic information about participants such as their age, gender, education level, school fee, school type, education and profession of their parents. The purpose of the socio-demographic information was to determine their socioeconomic status and get information about their gender. Some of the question statements in the first part are categorical in nature and contain multiple options while in some of the statements, respondents had to fill in the required

information. The following list of questions was used to collect their sociodemographic information:

1. What is your father's educational qualification?
2. What is your mother's educational qualification?
3. What is your father's occupation?
4. What is your mother's occupation?
5. What type of secondary school did you attend?
6. What was your monthly school fee?
7. What is the name of your school?
8. What is your gender?
9. What is your year of birth?
10. What type of school did you attend?

The second part of the questionnaire collects information about media use motives and the nature of media consumption. Most of the statements in the second category are comprised of 8-point Likert scales where 0 means never and 7 means daily or 7 days a week, and the remaining questions are of a yes or no nature. The media section may be categorized into the following four subcategories:

1. Media consumption
2. Media consumption for English language learning
3. Media use motives and practices
4. Media access

The questions from the first subcategory collected information about general media consumption patterns of the participants with regard to British, American, Pakistani and Indian

media. All these questions were based on an 8-point Likert scale. The following type of questions were mainly included in the first subcategory:

How often do you watch/listen the following type of media?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. American news channels
2. American TV shows
3. American movies
4. American music
5. American sports channels

More or less similar questions were used to collect information about consumption of British media, Pakistani media (English and Urdu programmes) and Indian media (English and Hindi Programmes). The second subcategory contains questions mainly about the use of British and American media for English language learning purposes. The purpose was to include in this category all the possible forms of media that participants may engage with for language learning purposes. The participants recorded the number of days they watch British and American media for English language learning purpose. The following questions were included in the second subcategory of media portion of the questionnaire:

How often do you watch/listen the following type of media for English language learning purposes?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. American language learning audio Series
2. American language learning videos
3. American talk shows
4. American movies
5. American music
6. American plays
7. American accent training audio/video
8. Speeches of important American personalities
9. British English language series like BBC English
10. British plays
11. British shows
12. British movies
13. Speeches of important British personalities
14. British accent training audio/video

The third part of the media section asked questions about the various media use motives based on an 8 point Likert scale. It consisted of the following questions:

How often do you use media for the following purposes?

1. To know how Americans interact socially
2. To know how Americans use words in their interaction
3. To learn how Americans speak in different situations
4. To learn about American life style
5. To learn about British life style
6. To learn how British people interact

7. To learn British accent
8. To improve your pronunciation
9. To watch British talk shows
10. To find out what is going on in the world
11. To improve your accent
12. To entertain yourself
13. To watch sports matches

The third part of the questionnaire collects information about participants' attitudes towards the British, American and Pakistani accents of English. Attitudinal statements are based on a five-point Likert scale. (See chapter 4 for detailed discussion on attitudinal and media information). For instance, they were asked questions about their attitudes towards the British accent, American Accent and Pakistani accent of English and their preferences in using these varieties. The participants responded to the following list of questions:

1. I like the British accent
2. The British accent is friendly
3. The British accent is trendy
4. The British accent is pleasant
5. The British accent is a symbol of intelligence
6. People value the British Accent
7. The British accent is popular
8. The British accent is modern and stylish
9. The British accent can help me find a good job
10. The British accent is powerful and influential
11. People can get more attention with British accent in official and social gatherings

12. British culture and life style is really good

The same questions were used to collect participants' attitudinal information about GA and PE. The questionnaire can be found in the appendix A. Participants willing to participate in the next phase of research were then contacted. They were asked to keep a record of the kind of media they watch and listen to in the form of a media diary for one week, which was later used to determine the type and degree of media engagement for each participant.

Out of 407 questionnaire respondents, 100 participants were invited to take part in the media diary and interview phase and finally 54 speakers were recorded in an interview situation at their respective university campuses. The participants were selected on the basis of their questionnaire responses. The aim was to make sure that the sample contained participants with a range of media consumption habits (some with low exposure to media, others with much higher exposure, for instance). Also, it was important to try to select participants with different attitudes towards RP, GA and PE. All the speakers included in this phase – which I'll refer to as the key sample - have no or very limited face-to-face international exposure to English. By no or limited International exposure means that participants have never been to countries where English is spoken as a major language such as the UK and the US. All of them can communicate in English since the medium of examination in Pakistani colleges and universities is English. The production data was obtained from the selected speakers in the form of a semi structured interview.

3.1.2 Media Diary

As discussed above, a 'media diary'(Adebesin, 2013) was also used to collect data about the media engagement of the participants for the duration of one week. I met the participants in two sessions on separate days. First session was to handover the media diary to them and

explain how to fill it in; the second session was to collect audio data in the form of an interview. A media diary is a media log that recorded the daily media consumption of the participants. It aimed to record the kind of media activity that participants engaged with in a typical week by focusing on three questions: 1. what media is consumed, 2. how it is consumed, and 3. for how long is media consumed? The media diary template can be found in Figure 3.1, and an example of a completed diary can be found in figure 3.2 and 3.3. Each participant was required to keep the diary for one week and it was handed over to each participant before the interview so as to give him or her enough time to record the media use and to hand it in on the day of interview. The participants were asked to record the name of each program, as well as the language, time, channel, source and duration of the program. They were also instructed to provide additional comments about their media practices, if any, in the space provided.

Media Diary

Participant: ----------

Please enlist the type of media programs you watch or listen to. Tick the relevant box and provide the required information.

Date	Type of media	Time (HH:MM)	Name	Name of Source/Channel	Language	American	British	Pakistani	Indian	Duration

Figure 3.1 Media diary template

Please enlist the type of media programs you watch or listen to. Tick the relevant box and provide the required information.

Date	Type of media	Time (HH:MM)	Name	Name of Source/Channel	Language	American	British	Pakistani	Indian	Duration
30/3/17	Review	7:15 PM	SAMSUNG GALAXY S8 and S8+ Review	Youtube	English	✓				8 min.
31/3/17	Video	12:30 Am	How to pair The last edges (5x5) cube	Youtube	English	✓				4 min.
31/3/17	Movie Trailer	12:45 Am	Deadpool 2 Movie Trailer.	Youtube	English	✓				2min 30sec
1/4/17	Movie	06:00 Pm	Monster Truck	TV	English	✓				1h 44min
2/4/17	Movie	01:00 Am	The Match Breaker	Laptop	English	✓				1h 35 min
2/4/17	Documentary	07:00 Pm	World's Shongest Man	Laptop	English		✓			42 min
2/4/17	Vlog	07:45 Pm	How to do a dead lift	Phone	English		✓			7 min
3/4/17	Movie	08:00 Pm	office Chrismas Party	phone	English	✓				1h 45 min

Figure 3.2 Media diary sample hand filled

Media Diary

Participant:____

Please enlist the type of media programs you watch or listen to. Tick the relevant box and provide the required information.

Date	Type of media	Time (HH:MM)	Name	Name of Source/Channel	Language	American	British	Pakistani	Indian	Duration
20/4/17	Movie	5:00PM	Good kids	Youtube	English	✓				2hours
20/4/17	Tv show	11:00AM	Stranger things	123movies	English	✓				1hour
21/4/17	Movie	10:00PM	Janaan	Youtube	Urdu			✓		3hours
21/4/17	Tv show	12:00AM	The Royals	123movies	English		✓			1hour
22/4/17	Tv show	10:00AM	The Vampire Diaries	TV	English	✓				40mins
22/4/17	TV show	12:45PM	13 reasons why	Youtube	English					40mins
22/4/17	Tv show	5:30PM	The modern family	Youtube	English	✓				20mins
23/4/17	Movie	2:00PM	Main hoon na	Youtube	Indian				✓	3hours
Date	Type of media	Time	Name	Name of	Language	American	British	Pakistani	Indian	Duration

Figure 3.3 Filled Media Diary Sample typed

3.1.3 Interviews

In the second part of the data collection phase, recordings of interviews with the participants were carried out. Informal speech was collected from each participant in a single sitting in the form of a semi structured sociolinguistic interview. The sociolinguistic interview is widely considered to be an appropriate method of collecting casual speech data (see Schilling-Estes, 2008). I prepared a list of potential themes and questions for the interview which aimed to involve the participants in discussion that could lead to generate relaxed speech. I included questions related to participants' background, education, interests, cultural events, media consumption habits, languages etc. The following questions were used for the interview:

1. Can you tell me something about yourself? Where did you spend most of your life?
2. When did you move to this city?
3. Would you like share with me something about your schooling? What kind of school was it?
4. Can you recall any incident from school life?
5. What subjects did you study during schooling?
6. Can you tell me something about the college/ university you are enrolled in?
7. Why did you choose this college/university? What did you opt for this field of study?
8. What kind of people do you like to mix with?
9. Do you have membership of any social club/ organization?
10. Would like to talk about your friends? Who are they? How did you meet them?
11. Do you like to attend social gatherings like marriages, engagement ceremonies, and other gatherings of this sort?
12. Can you talk about any gathering you have recently attended?
13. Can you tell me something about your hobbies?

14. Do you like to watch movies? How often do you watch movies?
15. What kind of movies do you like to watch?
16. Where would you prefer to watch movies, in cinemas or at home?
17. Please tell me something about the movie that you have recently watched
18. Do you like to follow the latest fashions? What kind of fashion is in these days?
19. Any particular brands do you like to go far when it comes to shopping for dresses?
20. Can you talk about some of the latest trends in Fashion in Pakistan?
21. Do you watch TV programmes? What kind of programmes do you like to watch?
22. Any favourite TV programme you like to watch regularly?
23. Any preferences for music? What kind of music do you like?
24. Do you like to watch talk shows? How often?
25. Do you like any sport? How often do you play that?
26. Do you like to watch sports channels too? Can you tell me something about any recent match you have played or watched?
27. How many languages can you speak? When do you use X language? Do you think English is very important language to succeed in your academic and professional career?

All the participants were recorded with a Zoom H6 voice recorder on their respective university campus to keep the interview settings comparable. Each interview was around 20-30 minutes in duration. The interview was conducted in English and I did not codeswitch during the interview. I tried to make the interview situation as informal as possible. Since the interview sessions were held in university campuses, I dressed in an informal way like university students in Pakistan do and tried to maintain a friendly tone with all the speakers throughout the interview, in order to reduce the level of formality associated with the interview. If I felt that

the participant was scared or nervous, I tried to make him/her feel at home by engaging him/her in an informal friendly conversation before recording his/her interview. These techniques, to a great extent, were successful in reducing the level of formality, making participants relaxed and comfortable. I would use the same techniques for my future research projects.

3.2 Data Analysis

The data analysis was performed in different phases. In the first phase, questionnaire responses were downloaded from the google drive in the form of a CSV file and analysed quantitatively, as will be discussed further below. In the second phase, the speech production data was transcribed using Elan and the transcripts along with audio files were uploaded into LaBB-CAT (Fromont & Hay, 2012). ELAN (Wittenburg, Brugman, Russel, Klassmann, & Sloetjes, 2006) is an annotation tool and allows multiple annotation layers. Different statistical packages were employed in R (Core Team, 2015) to carry out the analysis of questionnaire, media diary and production data.

3.2.1 Data Preparation for Analysis

The csv file containing all the responses to the questionnaire was first carefully cleaned, fixing all the typos, dates of birth and empty cells. For instance, in the year of birth column many irregularities were found because many of the speakers recorded their date of birth and month of birth with the year of birth (e.g. 15 Feb 1995 or 10-03-1996). I created a new column that contains only the year of birth (e.g. 1995). Likewise there were some empty cells in the CSV file which were deleted. Similarly some questions from the questionnaire had to be excluded

from the analysis because of an error in the [4]questionnaire design. Similarly I added few columns to assign each participant a code for each of socio-demographic factors like their parents' profession, education, school type, school fee etc. After that another column was created that contains the socioeconomic index of each participant computed by adding all the individual scores assigned to each of socio-demographic variables.

In the case of interviews, I removed the names of all the speakers using audacity before transcribing them in ELAN (Wittenburg et al., 2006). Audacity is a sound editing and recording application software (Mazzoni & Dannenberg, 2000).

3.2.2 Calculating socioeconomic status

As discussed in chapter 2, attitudes and media consumption may be affected by someone's socioeconomic status. To examine this, I calculated an index score which was labelled as socioeconomic status.

The socioeconomic status index was calculated based on range of variables such as parents' education, parents' professions, type of school and school fee. The following questions were used to collect information about variables used for socioeconomic status.

11. What is your father's educational qualification?
12. What is your mother's educational qualification?
13. What is your father's occupation?
14. What is your mother's occupation?
15. What type of secondary school did you attend?
16. What was your monthly school fee?
17. What is the name of your school?

[4] During analysis, I noticed an imbalance in the number of questions across three accents. I focused on questions which were available for all three accents.

Some of the above mentioned variables have been used by previous researchers in the field of linguistics for calculating the [5]socioeconomic status of the participants (e.g. Labov, 1966; Trudgill, 1974). Some studies in Pakistan have also used some of these indicators for calculating socioeconomic status(e.g. Khan & Qadir, 2018; Naz, Sohail, & Malik, 2014). Each participant received a score on their school type, school fee, education and profession of their parents. For example' participants whose father or mother was doing business or better government or private jobs were assigned score '4' whereas participants whose parents were doing lower ranks jobs were given '1' score. Likewise parents with higher education got score 4 and parents with no education received '0' score. In the same way participants were assigned a number on the kind of school they attended. For instance, participants who studied in elite schools received '5' score whereas participants who studied in government schools or less prestigious schools received score '1'. Likewise, each participant received a score for their school fee from 1-7. For instance, participants with school fees from 0-500 Pakistan rupees was assigned 1 and participants with 40000-100000 Pakistani rupees were assigned score '7'. All the scores were then added up to get a single score representing the socioeconomic status of the each participant. A higher score means higher socioeconomic status whereas low score means otherwise.

[5] Because of the unavailability of standardised metric of social class, I used a ranking score for each of the socioeconomic indicators based on my understanding of Pakistani society to calculate socioeconomic score for each participant.

Table 3.1 Calculating socioeconomic status of participants using sociodemographic information

Father's Education	ım.father.	Mother's Education	n.mothe	Father's Occupatio	m.father	er's Occupa	m.mother	school.type	school.fee	n.school	What is the name of your school?	.school	oc.status.index
BA/BSc/BBA/Bachelors	3	No Formal education	0	Microscopist	2	Housewife	1	Government	20	1	Govt Girls Higher Secondary School	1	8
Matric/O levels/SSC	1	No Formal education	0	Businessman	4	Housewife	1	Government	50	1	Govt Girls schools MzD	1	8
No Formal education	0	No Formal education	0	SHOEMAKER	1	NOTHING	1	Government	0	1	HAZARA SOCIETY HIGH SCHOOL QUE	1	4
Matric/O levels/SSC	1	No Formal education	0	Farmar	1	House wife	1	Government	30	1	Government high school	1	5
No Formal education	0	No Formal education	0	FARMER	1	NO	1	Semi-Governme	1000	2	elementary school	1	5
MA/MSc/Masters	4	MA/MSc/Masters	4	Business	4	House wife	1	Government	1000	2	F g girls high school	1	16
No Formal education	0	No Formal education	0	landlord	3	House Wife	1	Private	1000	2	Mubshir Model high school Gujrat	2	8
Matric/O levels/SSC	1	Matric/O levels/SSC	1	Clark in company	2	Housewife	1	Private	2000	2	Pak kashmir institute of computer scie	2	9
BA/BSc/BBA/Bachelors	3	Matric/O levels/SSC	1	lab supervisor	2	house wife	1	Private	2000	2	progressive model school	2	11
MA/MSc/Masters	4	Matric/O levels/SSC	1	Government servant	3	Housewife	1	Semi-Governme	2000	2	Shah Abdul Latif	2	13
bussinesman	1	No Formal education	0	cotton dealer	4	house wife	1	Private	800	2	national development school	2	10
BA/BSc/BBA/Bachelors	3	No Formal education	0	Bureacrat	3	Housewife	1	Private	500	1	Falcon House High School	2	10
Matric/O levels/SSC	1	Matric/O levels/SSC	1	Electrition	1	Housewife	1	Government	20	1	F. G girls model school G 9/3	2	7
MA/MSc/Masters	4	No Formal education	0	Asstt R.O	3	Nothing	1	Private	500	1	Beacon public high school	2	11
MS/M.Phil	4	MS/M.Phil	4	Doctor	4	Doctor	4	Private	15000	5	Islamabad Model college for Girls F 1(	3	24

3.2.3 Principal Component Analysis of Questionnaire

Principal Component Analysis, commonly known as PCA is a statistical technique employed for the reduction of data dimensions. PCA was applied to both the media and attitude portions of the questionnaire to transform the data into manageable size. The following sections include a detailed discussion of the principal component analysis related to media and attitudes. First, principal component analysis was applied to media portion of the questionnaire to transform the data into less factors. PCA transformed 46 questions into four factors, each representing one category of media consumption. Second, PCA was applied to attitudinal data to transform the data into three factors.

3.2.3.1 Principal Component Analysis: Media Consumption

PCA transformed 46 questions into three factors each representing one type of media consumption. In order to ensure that the data is suitable for PCA, two tests were performed.

First of all, to see the whether the relationship between the variables is significant enough to run PCA, Bartlett's test was run using the *cortest.bartlett*() function from the *psych* package (Revelle & Revelle, 2015). The result of Bartlett's test suggested that there is a significant relationship between the variables ($p<0.001$), so it was appropriate to apply PCA. After that, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin commonly known as KMO was run to assess the suitability of the data for PCA. The KMO test value was .9 (value greater than 0.5 is suitable), which was appropriate (Field, 2005; Field, Miles, & Field, 2012). This shows that data is suitable for running PCA.

After that, the appropriate number of components was established by employing three methods: a scree plot, a parallel analysis and Very Simple Structure Criterion (VSSC). All of these methods suggested 4 factors.

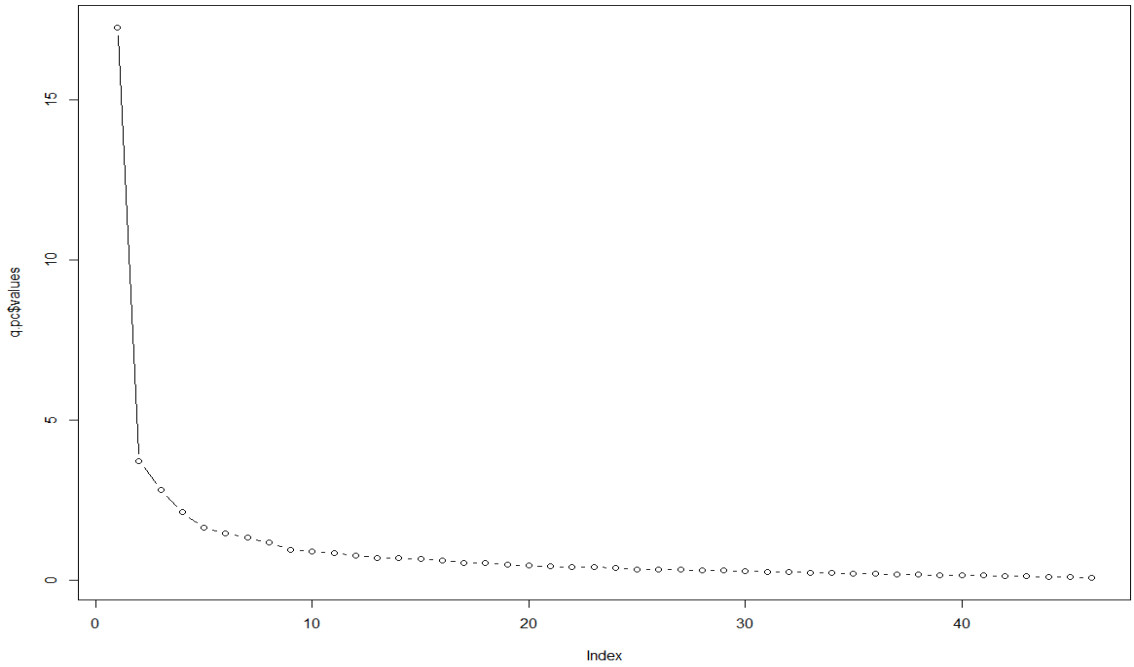

Figure 3.4 Scree plot suggesting number of factors for the media section of the questionnaire

Table 3.2 Four Factors calculated and revealed by PCA

Question	MediaPC2	MediaPC1	MediaPC4	MediaPC3
Q24	0.78			
Q23	0.78			
Q22	0.77			
Q28	0.73			
Q29	0.70			
Q27	0.68			
Q43	0.66			
Q42	0.63			
Q50	0.60			
Q25	0.51			
Q21	0.46	0.41		
Q44	0.42			
Q32				
Q47		0.78		
Q52		0.72		
Q51		0.69		
Q39		0.65		
Q45		0.64		
Q46		0.60		
Q48		0.60		
Q40		0.57		
Q26		0.55		
Q49	0.49	0.55		
Q62		0.54		
Q53		0.46		
Q41		0.46		
Q31		0.41		
Q56			0.81	
Q57			0.81	
Q55			0.75	
Q64			0.73	
Q61			0.72	
Q59			0.69	
Q60			0.65	
Q58			0.64	
Q54			0.62	
Q65			0.49	
Q63			0.40	
Q36				0.79
Q35				0.75
Q37				0.71
Q34				0.66
Q38				0.59
Q33				0.58
Q30				
Q66				

Table 3.2, shown above, displays the results of the four factors calculated by PCA. The numbers here indicate the contribution of each question to each factor. The three factors or principal components revealed by PCA are shown below in table 3.3. The questions contained within each factor can be used to explain what this factor actually represents. Questions in MediaPC1 are all related to English media for language learning (I will refer to this component as *medEngLangLearn).* The questions in MediaPC2 are related to English media mainly used for entertainment (now labelled *medEngLangEnt*). Similarly, questions in MediaPC3 are related to Pakistani and Indian media (labelled hereafter *medPakInd*). Finally, PC4 contains questions related to English media for cultural and social learning (i.e. media use for social interaction, accent, pronunciation, life style etc.) and (now labelled *medEngLangSoc*).

Table 3.3 Four principal components revealed by PCA

Factors	Question No.	Question statements
MediaPC2 =English Media for Entertainment (medEngLangEnt)	Q24	American Music
	Q23	American Movies
	Q22	American TV shows
	Q28	British movies
	Q29	British Music
	Q27	British TV shows
	Q43	American Music
	Q42	American Movies
	Q50	British Movies
	Q25	American sports channels
	Q21	American News Channels like CNN etc.
	Q44	American plays

	Q32	Pakistani English Radio channels
MediaPC1= English Media for Language learning (medEngLangLearn)	Q47	British English Language series like BBC English
	Q52	British Accent Training Audio/Video
	Q51	Speeches of important British personalities
	Q39	American language learning series with Audio
	Q45	American Accent Training Audio/Video
	Q46	Speeches of Important American personalities
	Q48	British Plays
	Q40	American Language learning Videos
	Q26	British News Channels like BBC etc.
	Q49	British Shows
	Q62	To watch British talk shows
	Q53	Pakistani English News Channels
	Q41	American Talk shows
	Q31	Pakistani English Talk shows
MediaPC4= English Media for Cultural and social Learning (medEngLangsoc)	Q56	To learn how Americans speak in different situations
	Q57	To learn about American life style
	Q55	To know how Americans use words in their interaction
	Q64	To improve your accent
	Q61	To improve your pronunciation
	Q59	To learn how British people interact
	Q60	To learn British accent
	Q58	To learn about British Life style
	Q54	To know how Americans interact socially

	Q65	To entertain yourself
	Q63	To find out what is going on in the world
MediaPC3= Pakistani and Indian Media (medPakInd)	Q36	Indian TV shows
	Q35	Indian movies
	Q37	Indian TV Plays/Dramas
	Q34	Pakistani Movies
	Q38	Indian News Channels
	Q33	Urdu TV programmes

3.2.3.2 Principal Component Analysis: Language Attitudes

There are 36 questions in attitude portion with 12 questions for each variety of accent. PCA transformed 36 questions into three factors each representing one variety of accent. In order to ensure that the data is suitable for PCA, two tests were performed. First of all, to see the whether the relationship between the variables is significant enough to run PCA, Bartlett's test was run using the *cortest.bartlett*() function from the *psych* package (Revelle & Revelle, 2015). The result of Bartlett's test suggested that there is significant relationship between the variables ($p<0.001$), so it was appropriate to apply PCA. After that, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin commonly known as KMO was run to assess the suitability of the data for PCA. The KMO test value was .96 which was appropriate (Field, 2005; Field et al., 2012). This shows that data is suitable for running PCA.

After that, the appropriate number of components was established by employing three methods: a scree plot, a parallel analysis and Very Simple Structure Criterion (VSSC). All these methods

suggested 3 factors. With these 3 factors, PCA explains 56% of the total variance in the data. PC1, PC2 and PC3 capture the 24%, 17% and 15% of the variance in the data respectively.

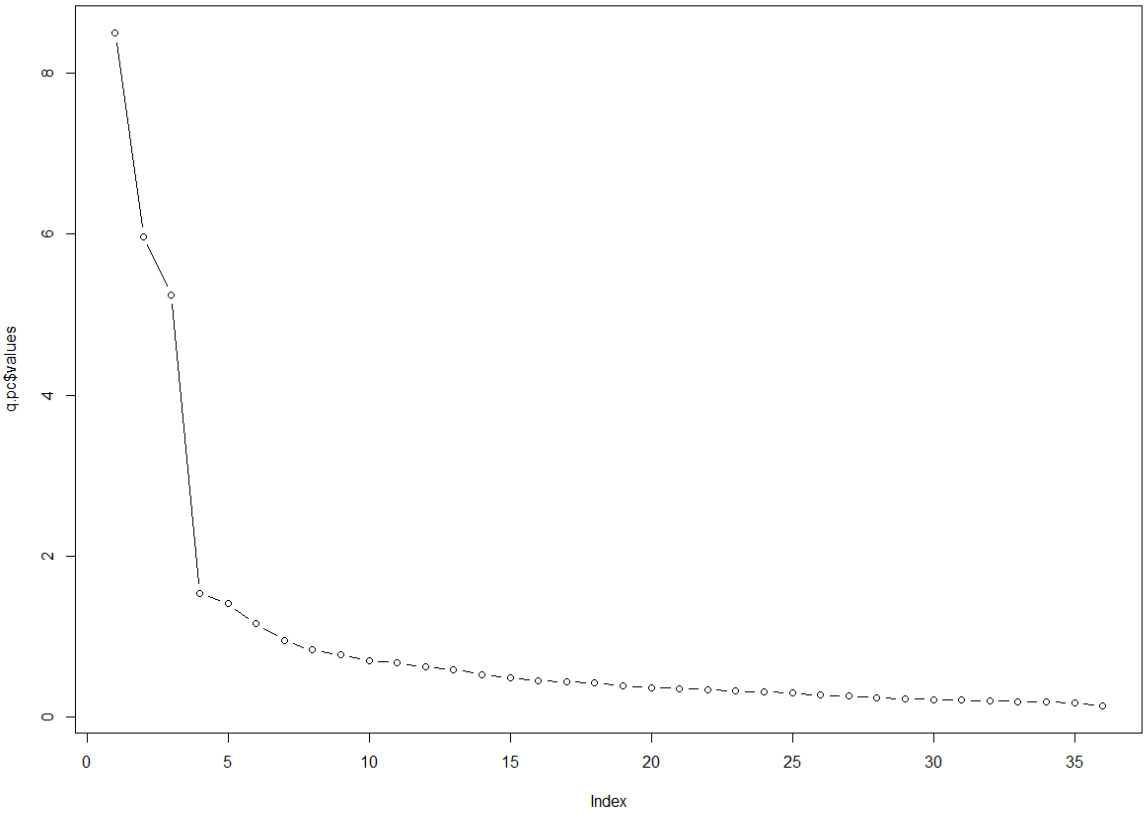

Figure 3.5 Scree plot suggesting the number of PC factors

Table 3.4 Three Factors calculated and revealed by PCA

Question No.	USAtt (PC1)	UKAtt(PC2)	PAKAtt(PC3)
Q93	0.81		
Q83	0.80		
Q90	0.80		
Q85	0.79		
Q84	0.77		
Q95	0.77		
Q92	0.77		
Q89	0.76		
Q88	0.75		
Q86	0.74		
Q87	0.68		
Q97	0.64		

Q73		0.80	
Q70		0.78	
Q67		0.76	
Q74		0.76	
Q78		0.75	
Q72		0.71	
Q68		0.68	
Q69		0.68	
Q81		0.68	
Q77		0.67	
Q71		0.66	
Q82		0.45	
Q105			0.82
Q100			0.80
Q108			0.80
Q99			0.79
Q106			0.79
Q104			0.78
Q107			0.75
Q109			0.75
Q103			0.75
Q98			0.71
Q102			0.66
Q111			0.33

Table 3.4 displays the results of three factors calculated by PCA. The numbers here indicate the contribution of each question to each factor. The three factors or principal Components revealed by PCA are shown below in table 3.5. The questions contained within each factor can be used to explain what this factor actually represents. For example, questions in PC1 are all related to the American Accent and so it shows participants' attitudinal score towards American accent. Likewise, all the questions in PC2 are related to the British accent and questions in PC3 are related to the Pakistani accent of English. PC1 captures the highest variance in the data while PC2 captures the second highest variance in the data. PC3 captures the third highest variance.

Table 3.5 Three principal components revealed by PCA

Factors	Question No.	Question statements
	Q83	I like the American accent

UsaAtt= Attitudes towards American Accent	Q93	The American accent is influential and powerful
	Q85	The American accent is pleasant
	Q92	American accent will help me get a good job
	Q90	The American accent is modern and stylish
	Q95	People can get more attention with American accent in official and social gatherings
	Q84	The American accent is friendly
	Q88	People value the American accent
	Q89	The American accent is popular
	Q86	The American accent is trendy
	Q87	The American accent is symbol of intelligence
	Q97	American culture and life style is really good
UkAtt= Attitudes towards British Accent	Q78	The British accent is powerful and influential
	Q73	The British accent is popular
	Q70	The British accent is pleasant
	Q67	I like the British accent
	Q74	The British accent is modern and stylish
	Q77	The British accent can help me find a good job
	Q68	The British accent is friendly
	Q72	People value the British Accent
	Q81	People can get more attention with British accent in official and social gatherings
	Q71	The British accent is a symbol of intelligence
	Q69	The British accent is trendy

	Q82	British culture and life style is really good
PakAtt= Attitudes towards Pakistani Accent	Q105	The Pakistani accent is a symbol of intelligence
	Q99	The Pakistani accent of English can help me find a good job
	Q100	The Pakistani accent is influential and powerful
	Q106	People value the Pakistani accent
	Q104	The Pakistani accent is trendy
	Q108	The Pakistani accent is modern and stylish
	Q103	The Pakistani accent of English is pleasant
	Q109	People can get more attention with the Pakistani accent in social and official gatherings
	Q98	I like the Pakistani accent of English
	Q107	The Pakistani accent is popular
	Q102	The Pakistani accent is friendly
	Q111	Pakistani culture and life style is really good

In this way, with the help of PCA, the 36 questions in the original data were reduced to three factors. These attitudinal scores were calculated for each participant. These three scores correspond to each participant's attitudinal score for three factors. The questions in PC1 are related to attitudes to American accent (I will refer to this component as *usaAtt).* The questions in PC2 are related to attitudes towards British accent (now labelled *ukAtt*). Similarly, questions in PC3 are related to attitudes towards Pakistani accent (labelled hereafter *PakAtt).*

3.2.4 Media Diary Analysis

As discussed earlier, a media diary was used to record the media consumption of each participant for a period of seven days. In first phase of diary analysis, all the responses were transferred to an excel sheet to facilitate the statistical analysis of the diary. Next the amount of media consumption of different of media was calculated using the Excel sheet. After that, the diary was analysed using R to determine the type and degree of each participant's weekly media consumption (See chapter 5).

This media diary is an adapted version of 'media log' which Adebesin (2013) used to document the weekly media consumption of Nigerian immigrants in Sweden. The media diary was designed to collect information about the programmes that the participants watch or listen to, and the time/duration that they engage with different types of media. The media dairy was handed over to the participants with explicit instructions on how to record their media consumption in the diary. Each participant was required to keep the diary for one week, and media diary was handed over to each participant before the interview so as to give him or her enough time to record the media use and to hand it in on the day of interview. The purpose of receiving the media diary before the interview was to ask questions about the media programmes mentioned in the [6]media diary. The participants were asked to record the name of each program, language, time, channel, source and duration of the program. They were also instructed to provide additional comments if any in the space provided about their media routine. A few of them provided comments in the comment section of the diary. Those

[6] Although some of the participants handed in the media diaries after the interview

comments were not included in the analysis portion because they were provided by a few of them.

The media diary depicted varying tendencies in the media practices of selected Pakistani speakers. As we can see in figure 3.6, participants used various types of media such as YouTube, TV and recorded content on laptop and cell phones. Since I was interested in the amount of time the participants spent with various type of media, I chose to include in the analysis the amount of time, language of media and type of media i.e. British, American, Pakistani, Indian etc.

Before the media diary analysis, the responses were transferred to a spreadsheet to calculate the type and duration of each type of media consumed

ID	Media.Type	Name	Channel	Language	Counrty.Media	Duration (Mins)
185	Tv show	Chicago P.D	Online (internet)	English	USA	45
185	Tv show	Homeland	Online (internet)	English	USA	55
185	Movie	Bad moms	Online (internet)	English	USA	130
185	Tv show	Walking dead	Online (internet)	English	USA	60
185	Tv show	Modern family	Online (internet)	English	USA	25
185	Drama	Mann Mayal	Hum Tv	Urdu	Pak	60
185	Tv show	Sherlock	Online (internet)	English	Uk	300
185	Documentary	EDM music history	Youtube	English	USA	30
185	Movie	Office christmas duty	Online (internet)	English	USA	90
185	Tv show	Shades of blue	Online (internet)	English	USA	45
185	Tv show	Mann Mayal	Hum Tv	Urdu	Pak	60
185	Tv show	Breaking Bad	AXN	English	USA	60

Figure 3.6 Digitization of media diary

In the preliminary analysis, media diary responses were analysed and calculated so as to get number of minutes each speaker spent with media. After calculating the amount of time for

each speaker's media consumption, his/her amount of time for different types of media was calculated. After initial analysis in Excel, the media diary file was exported to R to conduct further analysis. In order to determine the nature of relationship between speakers' media consumption documented in the diary and the social factors of socioeconomic status and gender, regression analysed were performed (see chapter 5).

3.2.5 Transcription and Elan

After the sociolinguistic interviews, the next step was to develop the Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE), a corpus built as an instantiation of LaBB-CAT with an aim of analysing the speech of Pakistani speakers of English. In order to do this, it was necessary to transcribe all the interviews orthographically and time-align the text with the audio data using ELAN software. The audio data was then segmented and transcribed using ELAN. ELAN is a professional tool which is used to create annotations on audio and video data(Wittenburg et al., 2006). Annotations can be created on multiple layers commonly known as tiers depending on the number of speakers. I used two tiers because there were two speakers in my audio data (see figure 3.7).

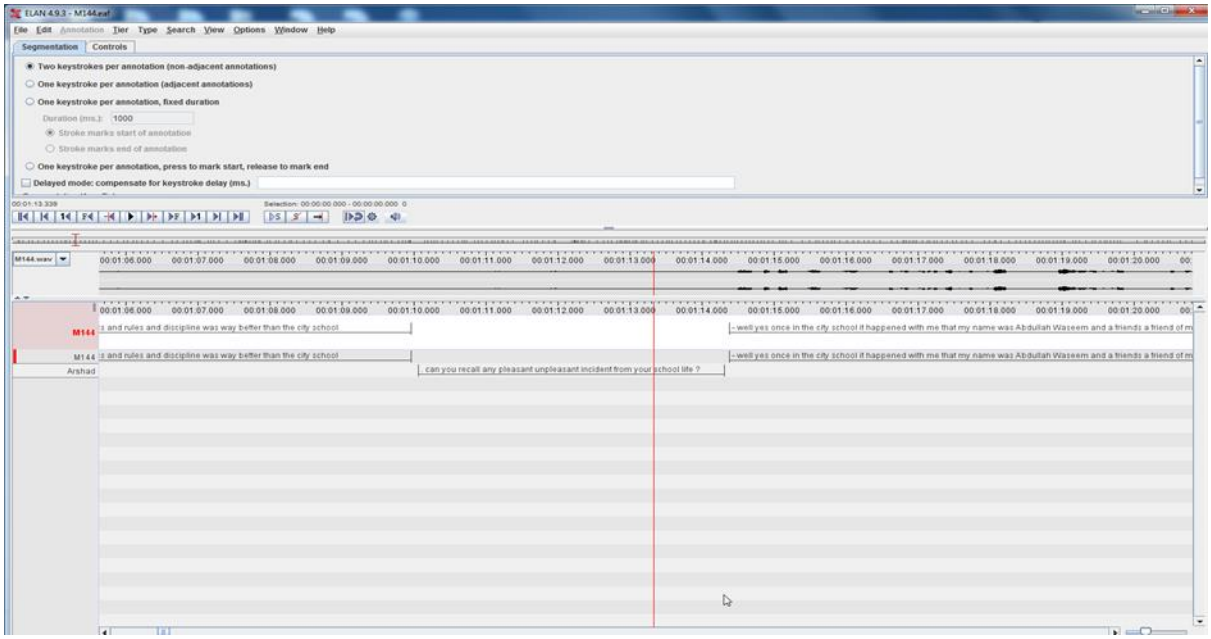

Figure 3.7 ELAN interface for interview transcription

After the transcription, all the data along with all the transcripts was uploaded to the Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE). The final step to prepare the corpus for analysis was to fix all of the spelling errors and provide missing phonemic transcriptions for new words.

3.2.6 LaBB-CAT

LaBB-CAT (Fromont & Hay, 2012) stands for Language Brain and Behaviour Corpus Annotation Tool and was designed by New Zealand Institute of Language Brain and Behaviour for corpus analysis. It stores time aligned transcripts of audio and video recordings. The transcripts, along with audio or video files, are then uploaded to LaBB-CAT, which also allows for storing additional information about the speakers and the transcripts. The transcripts can be manually and automatically annotated using CELEX (Baayen, Piepenbrock, & Gulikers, 1995). With the help of the Hidden Markov Model Toolkit (HTK) developed by the University

of Cambridge (Young & Young, 1993), word and audio can be time aligned at the phoneme level.

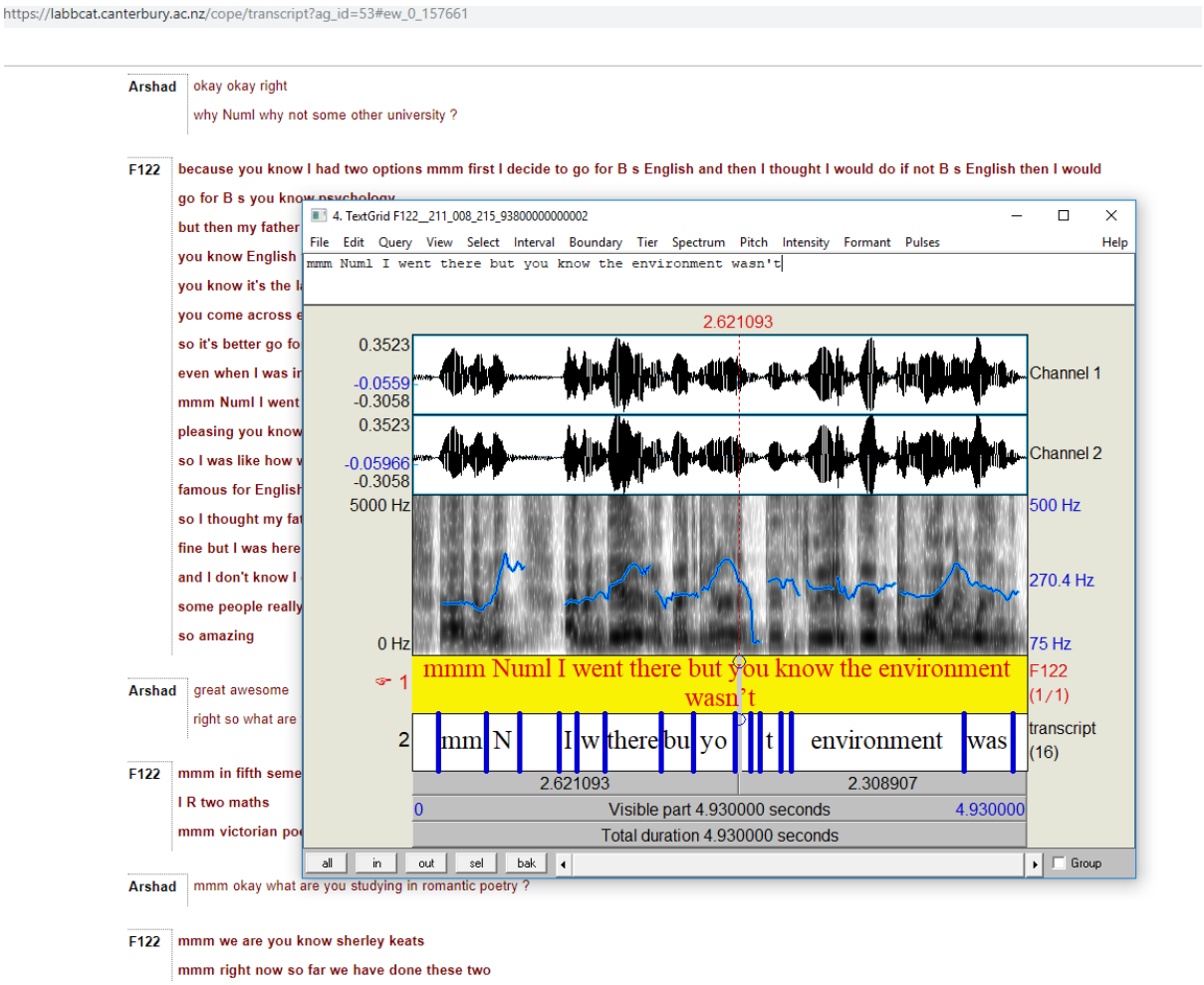

Figure 3.8 LaBB-CAT interface

One advantage of using LaBB-CAT is that it follows the 'train and align' process of alignment in which acoustic models are created based on the type of speaker and data being aligned and are not dependent on a set of pre-existing training data. Forced Alignment & Vowel Extraction (FAVE) program suite (Rosenfelder, Fruehwald, Evanini, & Yuan, 2011) employs a corpus of

Supreme Court Justices for its acoustic models and has no acoustic models for phonemes other than those found in General American English (MacKenzie & Turton, 2013). This makes LaBB-CAT more suitable for the alignment of idiosyncratic phones, such as those present in L2 idiolects (Gnevsheva, 2015a). Moreover, it allows the researcher to store any information related to the speaker along with the transcripts, making the search easier.

One of the advantages of LaBB-CAT is that it can automatically create phonemic transcriptions of the words using the CELEX dictionary. The phonemic transcriptions can be edited and refined manually if required by the researcher. Any new and missing words can be added to CELEX along with their phonemic transcriptions. In this project, many words had to be added, mostly proper nouns and code-switched words related to Pakistani culture and languages. The following steps were followed in compiling the corpus after the annotation and transcription of the recorded interviews:

1) Upload the transcript files along with sound files to LaBB-CAT
2) LaBB-CAT transcribes the files phonemically using the automatic function
3) Add new words to the dictionary with their transcriptions
4) Force align to create text grids at segmental level
5) Search for and extract the desired tokens

Large corpora like the Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE) can be easily handled by LaBB-CAT, allowing for the fast extraction of various linguistic factors for auditory and acoustic phonetic analysis.

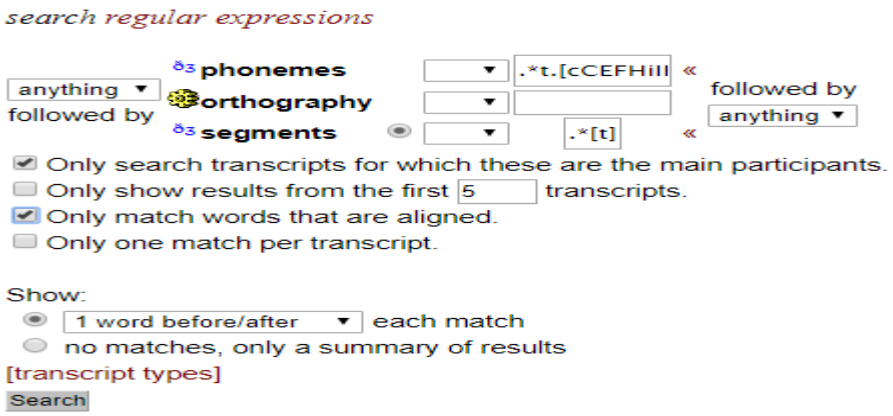

Figure 3.9 The search function in LaBB-CAT

3.2.6.1 Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE)

Once the transcripts were ready, all the audio data along with the transcript files was uploaded to COPE, which contains a total of 158,453 word tokens (see figure 3.10). In COPE, any information, whether grammatical or phonological, can be accessed using the search option and the information can be exported to a spreadsheet allowing the researcher to perform the desired analysis. COPE assisted me in performing a quick search for the desired features and helped me listen to and analyse certain features, using timing information which can automatically be produced with the help of LaBB-CAT.

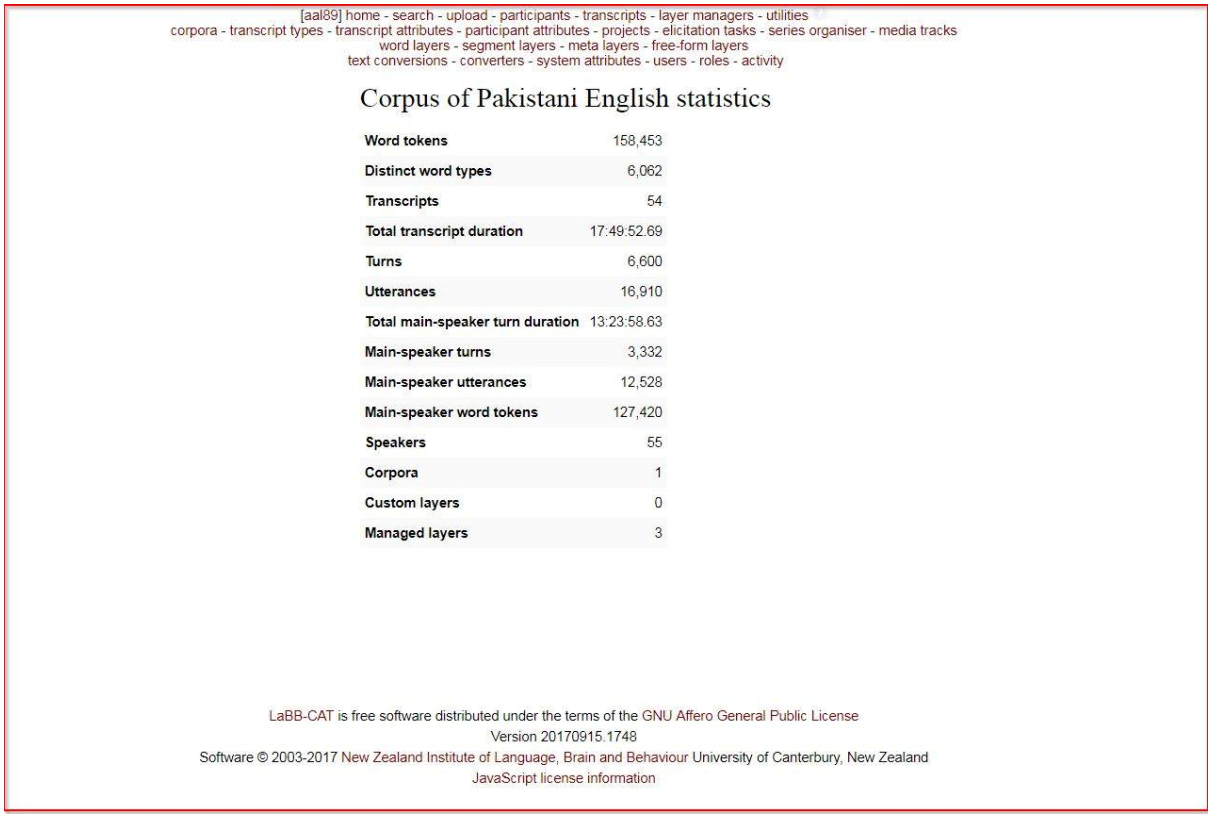

Figure 3.10 Corpus of Pakistani English statistics

3.2.6.2 Auditory phonetic analysis

The targeted linguistic features were extracted from the COPE using LaBB-CAT's (Fromont & Hay, 2012) automatic extraction function. For instance, for /t/, all the intervocalic /t/s, stressed and unstressed, were extracted, along with timing information and the words preceding and following the target words. After that, the timing CSV file was processed with PRAAT to extract the utterances containing the tokens, facilitating the auditory analysis of intervocalic /t/. In total 2839 tokens for intervocalic /t/ were extracted. On average 50 tokens per participant were obtained. All the tokens were listened to carefully to determine the type of /t/ variant. After the auditory analysis of /t/, the type of variant was typed into the CSV file for use in the analysis to determine the correlation with social factors. Similarly, post-vocalic and pre-

consonantal /r/ tokens were extracted from COPE in the form of a CSV file along with audio files. See chapter 6 for detailed discussion on analysis of /t/ and /r/.

3.3 Regression Analysis using Mixed effects Models

The data was analysed using R (R Development Core Team 2015). R is a very powerful statistical programming language. For the analysis of sociolinguistic data, mixed effects regression models are often used (Drager & Hay, 2012; Johnson, 2010). Mixed effects models allow for the inclusion of both fixed effects such as linguistic and social factors (their interactions as well) and random effects such as speaker and word. With speaker or word as a random effect, the statistical model takes into consideration individual variation and does not allow these individual tendencies to reflect in the data as tendency of the whole data set.

The kind of regression analysis generally used in variation studies is binominal logistic regression. Binominal logistic regression evaluates the relationship between a binary dependent variable such as any linguistic phenomenon and one or more independent factors typically known as predictors. Logistic regression is carried out in a stepwise process, using a maximum probability procedure.

The most important step in the regression analysis is the identification of the best fitting model. This is achieved by beginning with all possible factors and interactions, then following a stepwise procedure to eliminate non-significant factors and interactions. At each step, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the models. ANOVA generates an AIC value for each model, and the model with the lower AIC value is the better model (see chapter 4 and 6).

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) test was run to check for collinearity among predictors. A VIF score was calculated for each predictor included in the final model. The VIF scores were below 10. According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1995) , this is an acceptable threshold.

3.4 Dependent variables

The thesis has three important portions, and each portion deals with a number of variables. For instance, in the questionnaire section of the thesis (see chapter 4), gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption were treated as independent variables, and attitude was treated as a dependent variable to see how participants' attitudes towards three accents are conditioned by the social factors of gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption.

In the diary analysis, media consumption was used as a dependent variable. Similarly, in the regression analysis of audio data, linguistic variables (/t/ variants and /r/ variants) were modelled as dependent variables.

3.5 Independent variables

3.5.1 Media Engagement

Media engagement is an independent variable that was used as a predictor throughout the thesis except media diary analysis (see chapter 4 and 6). The research looks at the correlation between participants' media engagement practices and their accents. It is hypothesized that the type of media speakers engage with is likely to influence their accent. For instance, speakers who engage with more American media are expected to have some American features in their accent. Likewise, speakers with high British media consumption are likely to speak with British accent features. On the other hand, speakers with less or no media consumption at all are expected to speak with a Pakistani accent of English.

Media information obtained through the questionnaire was used to describe the media practices of the participants. Principal component analysis was used to transform the data into four factors: medEngLangLearn, medEngLangSoc, medEngLangEnt and medPakInd. Each factor represents a type of media consumption index. These media index scores will be used in chapters 4 and 6 in regression models. A detailed discussion on media principal components can be found in section 3.2.4.1.

3.5.2 Language attitudes

The second independent variable in this research is attitudes towards three accents of English: the British accent, General American accent and Pakistani accent. The information obtained through the questionnaire was used to describe the general picture of Pakistani speakers' attitudes towards three accents of English. After general description of attitudes towards three varieties of accent: British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent, principal component analysis was used to transform the data into three principal factors with each factor representing one variety of accent. With the help of principal component analysis, I generated a score for three accents for each of the participants which was termed as attitudinal index. The attitudinal index scores are ukAtt, usaAtt and PakAtt.

The attitudinal index for each accent was added as an independent variable in the analysis of /t/ and /r/ in chapter 6 to see how linguistic production varies for speakers with different attitudinal score for the British English (RP), the General American English and Pakistani accent. Do speakers with more positive attitudes towards a certain accent variety have a higher proportion of features found in that variety of accent? The inclusion of attitudes as an independent variable in this study aims to examine how positive or negative attitudes of second

language speakers such as Pakistanis in non-native countries such as Pakistan influence their pronunciation of English.

3.5.3 Social Factors

As discussed above, the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status are treated as independent factors in the analysis to investigate how they condition the media consumption, attitudes and linguistic behaviour of Pakistani speakers of English.

Socio-demographic information was obtained through the online questionnaire from the participants using a range of questions. The socioeconomic status of the participant was calculated in terms of their school fee, type of schooling and their parents' occupation and education. The social index was determined by assigning numerical values to type of school, School fee, parents' education and occupation. The detailed procedure for calculating the socioeconomic status is given in section 3.2.2.

3.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have outlined all the procedures and methods that I used, from data collection to data analysis. I used a questionnaire to collect socio-demographic, attitudinal and media related information from 407 participants. After that I chose 54 speakers (key sample) from the bigger sample and recruited them for the second phase of media diary keeping and a one to one interview. I have also discussed the process of developing a Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE) using LaBB-CAT and how I extracted the linguistic features and analysed them. In addition to that, I have discussed at length the statistical procedures followed for the data analysis.

This sets the ground for the first analysis chapter of this dissertation where I present the analysis of questionnaire responses from 407 participants. The chapter contains detailed discussion of the procedure I followed for the analysis of media consumption practices in section one. Furthermore, the chapter presents the detailed analysis of Pakistani speaker's attitudes towards the British (RP), American and Pakistani accents of English in section two. The discussion of mixed effects regression analysis to examine the relationship between accent rating and media consumption and sociodemographic factors in also given in the next chapter.

4 Questionnaire Analysis

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the questionnaire data. As discussed in the preceding chapters, one of the aims of the research is to provide a general picture of media consumption practices and language attitudes among Pakistani speakers of English. Another aim is to explore how media consumption practices influence the attitudes and perception of Pakistani speakers of English towards RP, GA and PE. Before examining the correlation between factors such as attitudes and media consumption (and language production later in the thesis), it is important to understand these factors in their own right. This chapter explores, in turn, language attitudes and patterns of media consumption among Pakistani speakers of English.

First, in this chapter, I present the analysis of the media consumption practices in section one, and then in the following section I present the analysis of the participants' attitudes towards RP, GA and PE.

4.1 Questionnaire Analysis: media consumption

I first present questions related to the media section of the questionnaire in section 4.1.1 followed by a brief account of the methodology in section 4.1.2. After that I discuss media access in section 4.1.3. Then I describe the results of consumption of English language media in section 4.1.4 followed by the discussion on American media consumption in section 4.1.5. After that, I present a detailed account of British media consumption in section 4.1.6 followed by a discussion of Pakistani media consumption in section 4.1.7. Consumption of Indian media is discussed in section 4.1.8. After that, I present a comparison of all types of media consumption in section 4.1.9. A detailed discussion of the consumption of American and

British media for language learning is provided in section 4.1.10 followed by a discussion of media use motives in section 4.1.11.

4.1.1 Research Questions: media related

1. What are the media consumption practices among Pakistani speakers of English?
2. How is the media consumption of the participants related with their attitudes towards American, British and Pakistani accents of English?

4.1.2 Methodology

As outlined in chapter 3, the survey aimed to collect the type and amount of media programmes that Pakistani speakers of English consume in a typical week. The data came from 407 participants. Although the main focus of the survey was to collect information from the participants on their consumption of English language media particularly British and American media, it was deemed appropriate to include other types of popular media like Pakistani and Indian media in order to examine the relationship between consumption of non-English media and accent rating. This section mainly sheds lights on the five types of media, English, British, American, Pakistan and Indian media. The information is used to determine participants' average weekly consumption of different types of media.

The main aspect of media consumption measured in this research investigation is the number of days participants watch or listen to media. The information was collected through questionnaire based on an 8 point Likert scale where zero (0) means no media consumption at all, (1) means one day and (7) means 7 days or daily. It is important to clarify that the aspect of media consumption discussed in this study is electronic media in which audio or video with audio is involved.

For convenience, all questions related to different types of media can be grouped into the following five groups, English language media, American media, British media, Pakistani media and Indian media. There may be other types of media that speakers may consume but the present research focuses on the above five types which, I think, are the major types of media consumed in Pakistan. The following section describes the responses to media access related questions.

4.1.3 Media Access

Participants were required to answer the following yes/no questions related to media access.

Q112. I have access to TV at home

Q113. I have access to only free channels at home like PTV channels

Q114. I have access to cable TV at home

Q115. I have access to a satellite dish at home

Q116. I have a broadband internet connection at home

Q117. I have a computer at home

Q118. I use a computer to watch videos

Q119. I have a tablet

Q120. I use a tablet for watching videos

Q121. I have a smartphone

Q122. I use a smartphone for watching videos

Q123. I have a laptop

Q124. I use a laptop for watching videos

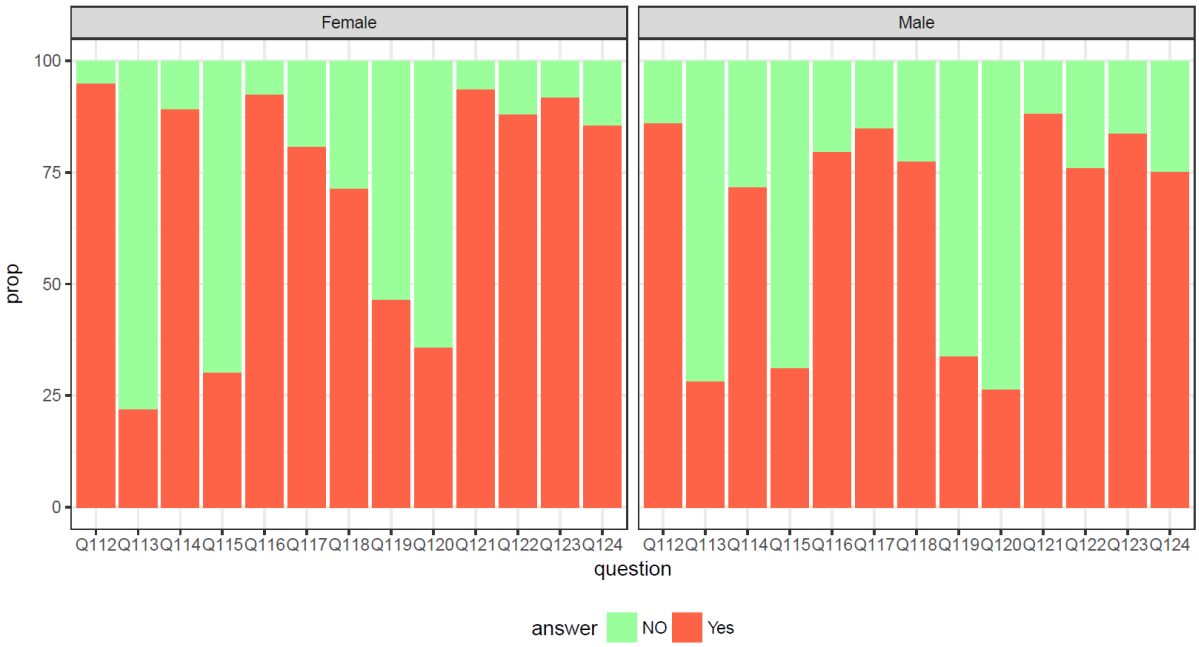

Figure 4.1 Media access reported by the participants

Figure 4.1 shows that all the participants reported access to media. We can see that both men and women reported somewhat similar responses to different means of media access, with some slight variations. For instance, both men and women reported that they have access to TV at home. Similarly, men and women reported that they have access to TV channels other than free channels. Higher number of women than men reported access to cable TV. The majority of the men and women reported that they do not have access to satellite dish TV. A higher number of women reported access to cable TV and access to broadband internet at home, compared to men. The majority of the men and women reported that they do not have access

to satellite dish TV, and that they own a computer. More men than women reported that they use a computer to watch videos.

The majority of men and women do not have a tablet. However, the number of women who do own a tablet is higher than men. Similarly, women use tablets more than men do to watch videos. A higher proportion of women than men reported that they have smart phones. Similarly, a higher proportion of women use smart phones to watch videos. The majority of the men and women reported that they have laptops. The number of women who reported they have a laptop is higher than men. Likewise, women use laptops more for watching videos than men do.

In the next section, I present a detailed discussion on media consumption of different types followed by a comparison of different types of media consumption.

4.1.4 Consumption of English Language Media

The following question was asked to collect information from the respondents on their weekly media consumption of English language programmes, which includes all types of media produced in English. The respondents were required to rate their media consumption on 8 point based Likert scale where 0 means never and 7 means daily or 7 days a week.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of media?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. News in English language
2. Movies in English language

3. Music in English language
4. TV shows in English language

The table 4.1, shown below, presents the consumption of English language media patterns as reported by the participants included in the survey.

Table 4.1 English Language Media Consumption

English Language Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
News in English Language	2.421053	1.85625	2.199017
Movies in English Language	2.817814	2.70625	2.773956
Music in English Language	3.089069	4.23125	3.538084
TV Shows in English Language	2.08502	2.575	2.277641

The analysis of the questionnaire shows that Pakistani speakers of English consume a considerable amount of English language media. However, there exists some variation in the consumption of different types of English language media. As we can see from table 4.1, participants have reported higher consumption of English music (3.53 days a week on average) compared to other types of English language media. Women have reported slightly higher consumption of English music than that of men. It seems that English music is more popular in women than men. In addition to music, participants also reported considerable consumption of other types of English media. For instance, participants watch English news for 2.19 days a week on average with men having slightly higher consumption than those of women. Likewise,

participants watch English movies and TV shows for 2.77 and 2.27 days a week on average respectively.

The results of this general category of English media reveals that music is the most consumed type of English media among Pakistani speakers. As we can see in table 4.1, men and women reported a similar amount of media consumption, with the exception of music where women reported a considerably higher amount of media consumption. It was expected that women would report a lower amount of media consumption than men due to cultural reasons. Being a Pakistani myself, based on my informal observation, I feel that men enjoy a higher degree of freedom than women, and are allowed to watch whatever they like, in most cases. This reported trend by women may be an indication of a shift in cultural norms, especially in the cities where women get a higher degree of freedom to choose whatever they like. This may also be the result of technological development, especially in the field of communication and media technology (especially in the last two decades) where most people can have easy access to recorded content and media programmes through various websites and online streaming services.

4.1.5 American Media Consumption

Respondents were also required to answer the following question about their consumption of American media programmes.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of American media?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

6. American news channels
7. American TV shows

8. American movies
9. American music
10. American sports channels

The table given below presents the American media consumption patterns of Pakistani speakers of English as reported in the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 Consumption of American Media

American Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
American News Channels	1.279352	1.225	1.257985
American TV shows	1.49392	1.9375	1.668305
American Movies	2.712551	2.65	2.687961
American Music	2.271255	3.28125	2.668305
American Sports channels	1.242915	1.075	1.176904

As shown in table 4.2, the most consumed kind of American media is American movies, with 2.687 days on average per week. Men and women have reported almost the same amount of consumption of American movies. American music is second with 2.668 days on average per week. When compared with men, women reported a higher amount of American music consumption than men. American TV shows are watched by participants for 1.668 days a week on average with a little variation between men and women. American news and sports channels

are watched for 1.257 and 1.176 days a week on average, respectively, with a small difference between men and women.

It is interesting to note that women reported almost equal consumption to men in most types of American media, and in some areas they even reported higher consumption than men. For instance, in case of American music and TV shows consumption, women reported much higher consumption than men. It was expected that men would report much higher amounts of American media consumption than women because of cultural and religious reasons. This is perhaps again a signal of paradigm shift in the cultural traditions in an established patriarchal society.

4.1.6 British Media Consumption

Respondents were also required to answer the following question regarding their consumption of British media programmes.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of British media?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. British news channels like BBC etc.
2. British TV shows
3. British movies
4. British music

Table 4.3 below presents the picture of the consumption of various aspects of British media as reported by Pakistani speakers of English.

Table 4.3 Consumption of British Media

British Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
British News Channels	1.902834	1.7	1.823096
British TV Shows	1.246964	1.5	1.346437
British Movies	2.05668	2.2375	2.127764
British Music	1.781377	2.75	2.162162

It is obvious from the above table that the heaviest consumed aspect of British media is music with a consumption of 2.162 days on average per week. As with American media, women reported higher music consumption than men. The second highest type of British media consumed is movies with a consumption of 2.127 days a week on average with a very small variation between men and women. Participants reported consumption of British news channels for 1.823 days on average with a slight difference between men and women.

4.1.7 Pakistani Media Consumption

Respondents were also required to answer the following question regarding their consumption of Pakistani media programmes.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of Pakistani media programmes?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. Pakistani English news channel
2. Pakistani English talk shows
3. Pakistani English radio channels
4. Pakistan Urdu TV programmes
5. Pakistani movies(Urdu)

The table 4.4 shows the weekly consumption of different aspects of Pakistani media.

Table 4.4 Consumption of Pakistani Media

Pakistani Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
Pakistani English News Channel	1.88664	2.00625	1.933661
Pakistani English Talk shows	1.267206	1.84375	1.493857
Pakistani English Radio channels	1.048583	1.65625	1.287469
Pakistan Urdu TV programmes	3.291498	3.9375	3.545455
Pakistani Movies	1.42915	1.7	1.535627

Table 4.4 presents the weekly average consumption of Pakistani media as reported by the respondents in the questionnaire. It shows that the most consumed aspect of Pakistani media is Pakistani Urdu TV programmes, with a consumption of 3.545 days a week on average, with a small difference between men and women. Women reported a higher amount of use of all types of Pakistani media. It seems that women are more interested in Pakistani media programmes than men. It was expected that women would report a higher amount of Pakistani media use

because they have an easy access to Pakistani programmes. This could be because of two reasons: easy access to free TV channels and social and cultural acceptability of the Pakistani media programmes.

4.1.8 Indian Media Consumption

Respondents were also required to answer the following question regarding their consumption of Indian media programmes.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of Indian media programmes?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

1. Indian movies
2. Indian TV shows
3. Indian plays
4. Indian news channels

Table 4.5 presents the media consumption of Indian TV channels as reported by the participants.

Table 4.5 Consumption of Indian Media

Indian Media Consumption	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole

Indian Movies	2.238866	2.01875	2.152334
Indian TV shows	1.186235	1.025	1.12285
Indian Plays	0.7732794	1.2375	0.955774
Indian News Channels	0.534413	0.35	0.4619165

As evident from table 4.5, the heaviest consumed aspect of Indian media is movies, where respondents have reported a consumption of 2.152334 days on average with men being slightly higher consumers of Indian movies. The second most consumed aspect of Indian media is TV shows, with a weekly consumption of 1.12285 days on average with small differences between men and women. Indian plays and news channels are watched for an average of 0.9557 and 0.4619 days a week respectively with a small variation between men and women.

4.1.9 Comparison of media consumption types

Figure 4.2 shows the comparison of various forms of English, British, American, [7]Pakistani and Indian media. In the case of movies, the consumption of British and Indian movies is almost the same and the variation in responses ranges from 0 to 7. Similarly, the amount of consumption of English and American movies is the same and the variation in responses ranges from 0 to 7 on the frequency scale. The plot shows that American and English movies are watched the most and Pakistani movies the least.

[7] During the analysis, I noticed an imbalance in the number of questions across the media type categories.

In the case of music, the consumption of English music is the highest whereas the consumption of British music is the lowest. American music is consumed less than English music and more than British music.

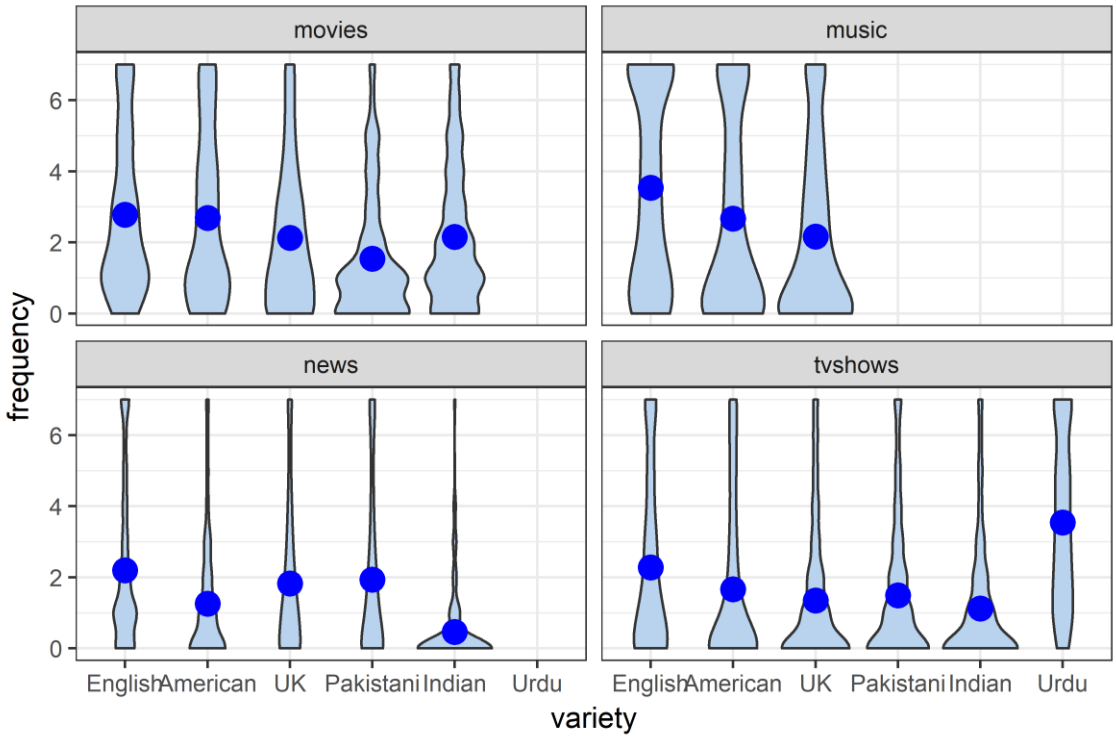

Figure 4.2 Comparison of media types

The plots for the news section show that English news channels are watched the most and Indian news the least, almost zero. The consumption of British and Pakistani channels is similar whereas the consumption of American news channels is lower than English, British and Pakistani.

In the case of TV shows, participants watch Urdu TV shows the most and Indian TV shows the least. The consumption of Pakistani and British talk shows is somewhat similar. The

consumption of American TV shows is lower than English TV shows but higher than other Pakistani, British and Indian shows.

4.1.10 Media Consumption for English Language Learning

This section presents the use of different aspects of American and British media for English language learning purposes as reported by the participants. The aim for including this section is to find out how often participants actively engaged with media for language learning purposes. Respondents reported their weekly media use for English language purposes on an 8 point Likert scale using the following options.

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

4.1.10.1 Use of American Media for Language Learning

Respondents were required to answer the following question designed to collect their media consumption of American media programmes for English language learning purposes.

How often do you watch/listen to the following type of American media for English language Learning?

Q39.American language learning audio series

Q40.American language learning videos

Q41.American talk shows

Q42.American movies

Q43.American music

Q44.American plays

Q45.American accent training audio/video

Q46.Speeches of important American personalities

The following table presents the consumption of American media by Pakistani speakers of English for learning the English language.

Table 4.6 Use of American Media for English Language Learning

American Media for Language Learning	**Average Number of Days**		
	Men	Women	Whole
American Language Learning Audio Series	0.7004049	0.94375	0.7960688
American Language Learning videos	0.9878543	1.4375	1.164619
American Talk Shows	0.8866397	1.25	1.029484
American Movies	2.489879	2.43125	2.46683
American Music	1.939271	2.75625	2.260442
American Plays	0.8582996	1.1	0.953317
American Accent Training Audio/Video	0.7004049	0.88125	0.7714988
Speeches of Important American Personalities	1.356275	1.45625	1.395577

As shown in table 4.6, participants reported American movies and music as the heaviest consumed type of American media for English language learning with weekly consumption of about 2.46 and 2.26 days on average respectively. Women reported the use of more American

music for language learning than that of men. The participants also reported the use of speeches of important American personalities for language learning with an average consumption of 1.39 days a week, with a small difference between men and women.

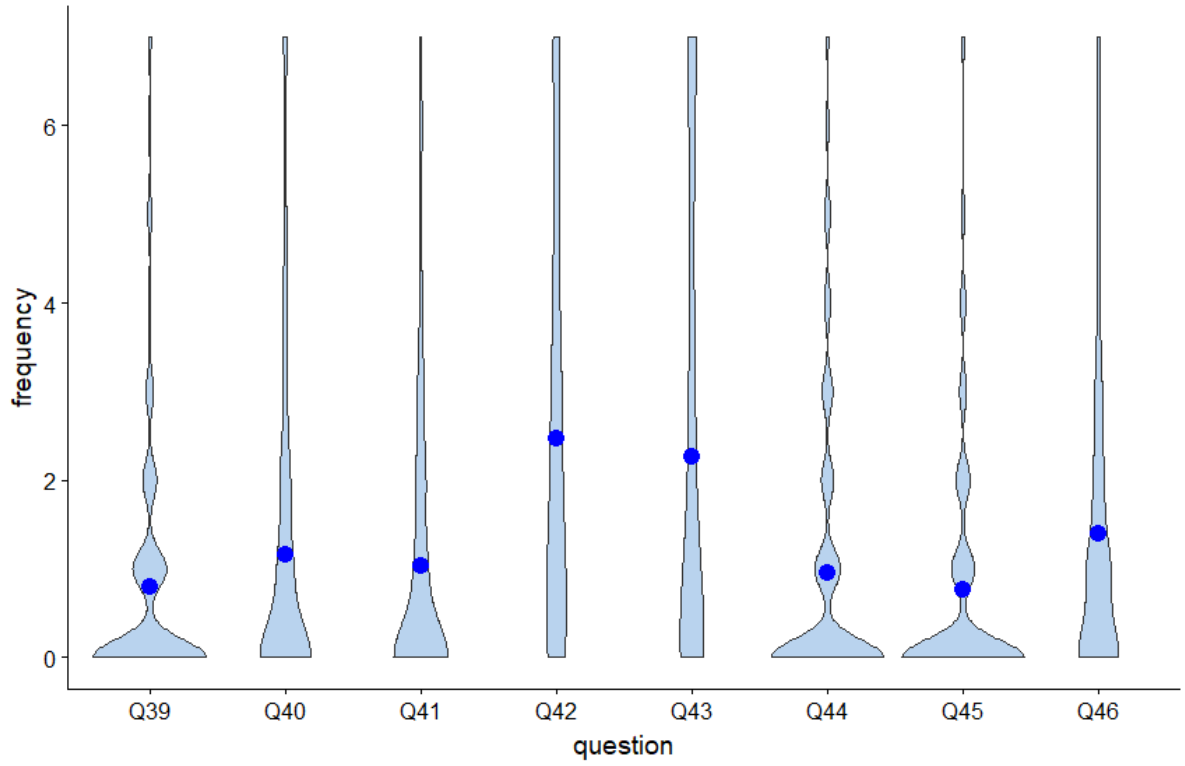

Figure 4.3 Use of American Media for Language Learning

Figure 4.3 presents the range of variation across the use of different types of American media for language learning purposes by the participants. We can see that American music and American movies have been reported as the most consumed aspects of American media. We can also see that some participants reported the use of American plays and training videos for language learning purposes. Participants seem to actively engage with different aspects of American media for language learning.

4.1.10.2 Use of British Media for Language Learning

Respondents were also required to answer the following question designed to collect information regarding their consumption of British media for English language learning purposes.

How often do you watch/listen to the following type of British media for English language Learning?

Q47.British English language series like BBC English

Q48.British plays

Q49.British shows

Q50.British movies

Q51.Speeches of important British personalities

Q52.British accent training audio/video

Table 4.7 describes the consumption of different aspects of British media as reported by Pakistani speakers of English for learning English.

Table 4.7 Use of British Media for English Language Learning

British Media for Language Learning	**Average Number of Days**		
	Men	Women	Whole
British English Language series like BBC English	1.194332	1.30625	1.238329
British Plays	0.8340081	0.8625	0.8452088
British Shows	1.704453	2.025	1.830467

British Movies	1.817814	1.925	1.859951
Speeches of important British Personalities	0.9919028	1.225	1.083538
British Accent Training Audio/Video	1.040486	0.975	1.014742

As shown in table 4.7, participants reported British movies and shows as the most consumed type of British media for English language learning with weekly consumption of about 1.85 and 1.83 days on average, respectively. Women reported the use of more British movies and shows for language learning than men. The participants also reported the use of British language series and speeches of important British personalities for language learning with weekly consumption of 1.23 and 1.08 days on average, with a small difference between men and women. Likewise, some other aspects of British media were reported by the respondents, as shown in the table above.

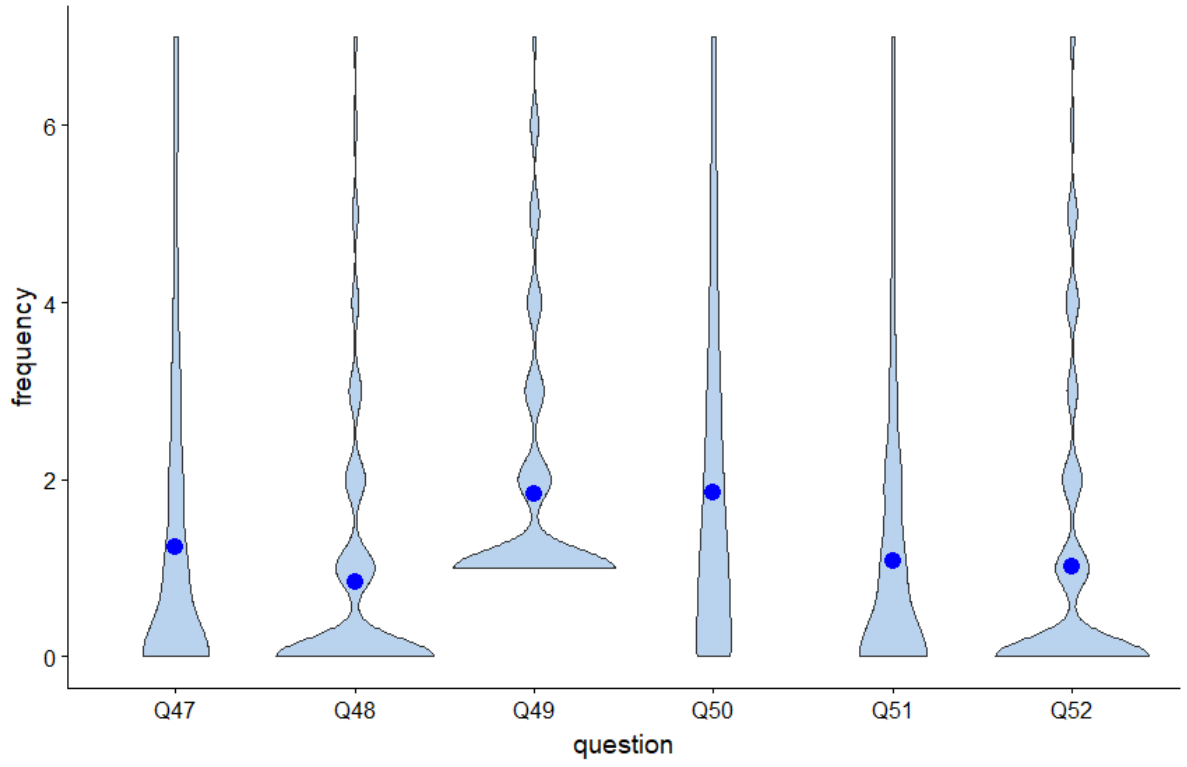

Figure 4.4 Use of British Media for Language Learning

Figure 4.4 presents the amount of British media consumption and range of variability across the speakers as reported by Pakistani speakers of English. Participants reported the use of British movies as the highest consumed media for language learning with a lot of variability across the speakers. Use of British movies ranges from 0 to 7. Participants also reported the use of British plays, recorded speeches of British personalities and Pakistani English news channels with a range of variability in responses.

4.1.11 Media use motives and Practices

Two sections of the questionnaire collected information regarding media use motives. The first section was designed based on an 8 point Likert scale with an aim to measure the amount of media consumption of various types for different motives. The second section was designed

based on a 5 point Likert scale to see how participants rate various statements about their media practices.

4.1.11.1 Media use motives among Pakistani speakers of English

In this section, a range of possible motives was included in the questionnaire. Pakistani speakers reported their weekly media consumption for several motives on an 8 point based Likert scale using the following options.

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

The following question was used to collect information about their media motives.

How often do you use media for the following purposes?

Q54.To know how Americans interact socially

Q55.To know how Americans use words in their interaction

Q56.To learn how Americans speak in different situations

Q57.To learn about American life style

Q58.To learn about British Life style

Q59.To learn how British people interact

Q60.To learn British accent

Q61.To improve your pronunciation

Q62.To watch British talk shows

Q63.To find out what is going on in the world

Q64.To improve your accent

Q65.To entertain yourself

Q6.To watch sports matches

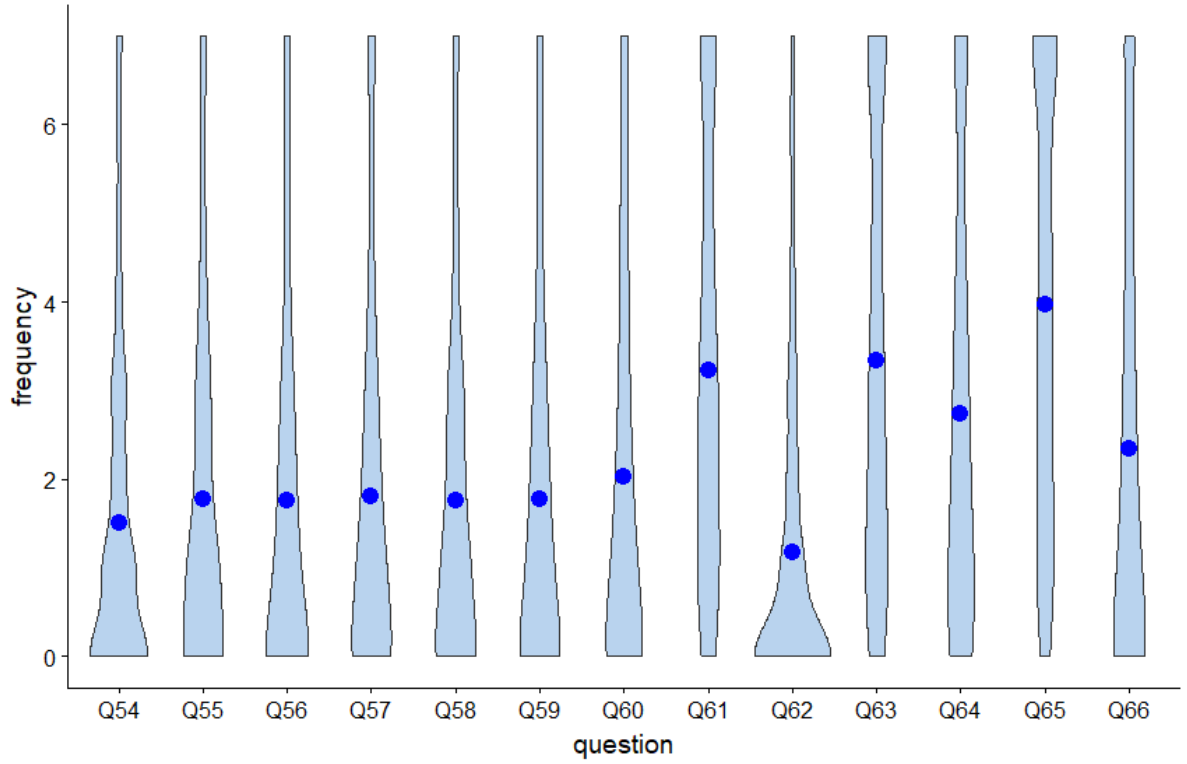

Figure 4.5 Media use motives

In response to the media use motive statements, respondents reported the use of media for cultural knowledge, information, entertainment and language learning. As we can see from figure 4.5, entertainment was rated first in the possible media use motives. This shows that the primary purpose of engaging with the media is entertainment, which helps the viewers spend their free time. The second ranked media motive is information about the various world affairs that participants are interested in. Participants also reported the use of media for language learning, especially phonological aspects such as pronunciation. As we can see from figure 4.5, there is a lot of variation across speakers in their media motives. Pakistani speakers do use British and American media for language and cultural learning purposes.

4.1.11.2 Media use practices among Pakistani speakers of English

This section presents the respondents' media practices reported on a 5 point Likert scale using the following options to answer the question given below.

1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

How do you rate the following statements?

Q125.I watch English movies and shows on my Cell Phone

Q126.I use YouTube to watch English Movies

Q127.I watch English movies and shows online

Q128.I avoid watching English movies because of cultural and religious reasons

Q129.I watch English News

Q130.I watch the BBC news channel

Q131.I listen to English Songs on Radio Channels

Q132.I watch CNN news

Q133.I watch English movies at home with family members

Q134.I watch Pakistani English News Channel (PTV world)

Q35.My teachers use/used English audio/video material for teaching purposes.

In response to some statements related to participants' media use practices, the majority of the participants agree that they watch movies and shows online. The majority of the participants also agree that they use YouTube for watching English movies. This shows that Pakistani speakers of English use online streaming services and online available content. The majority of the participants also agree that they use their mobile phones to watch English movies and

shows. Some participants agree that they avoid English movies because of cultural and religious reasons. Figure 4.6 shows that there is a lot of variation in responses across the speakers.

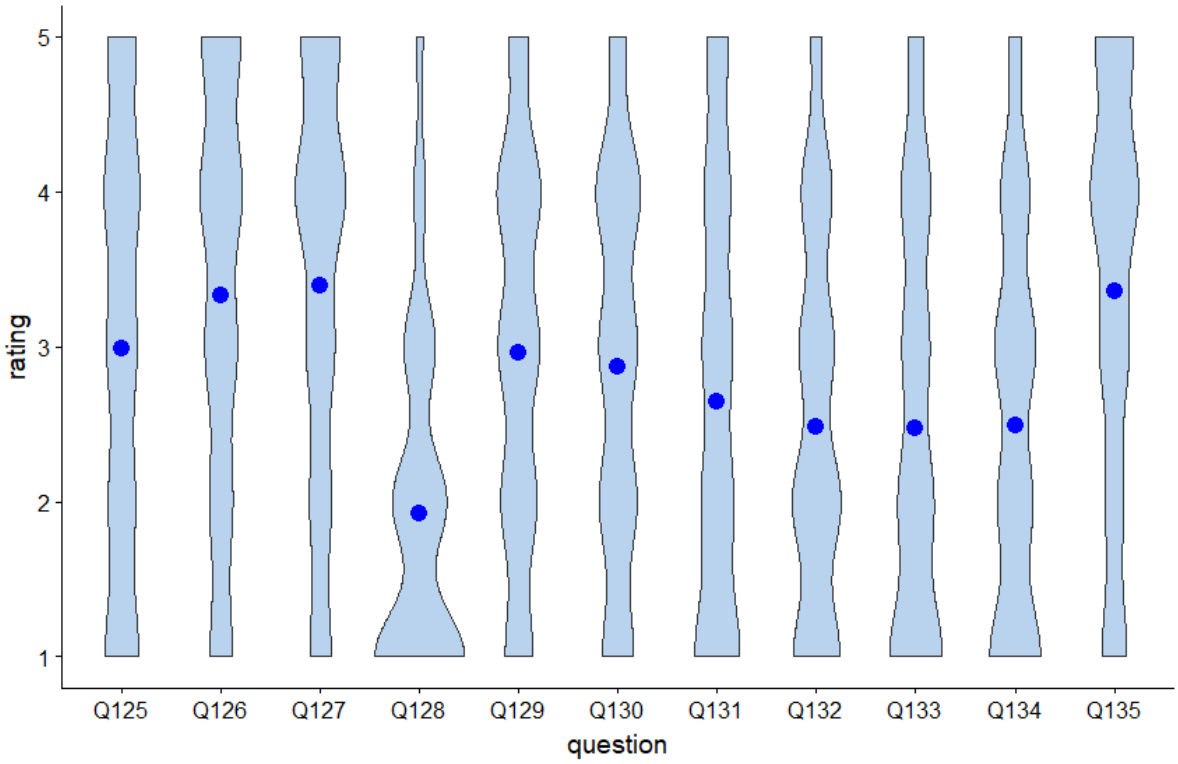

Figure 4.6 Media use practices

Many participants also agree that they watch the BBC news channel and listen to English songs on radio channels. This shows that the BBC news channels and English radio channels are considerably popular among Pakistani speakers of English. Comparatively, CNN news channels seem to be less popular among Pakistani speakers of English as only a few participants agree that they watch CNN news. Many of the participants agree that they watch English movies at home with their family members. This shows that the acceptability of English movies among Pakistani families is increasing. In response to the consumption of Pakistani English

news channel, the majority of the participants disagree that they watch Pakistani English news channel. This shows that Pakistani English news channel is not very popular among Pakistani speakers of English. In response to the use of audio/video in class rooms, the majority of the participants seem to agree that their teachers use audio/video facilities for teaching. This indicates that Pakistani teachers to some extent use audio/video aids for teaching purposes.

4.2 Questionnaire Analysis: language attitudes

This section of the chapter describes the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English toward native and non-native accents of English namely the British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent, and then examines the nature of the relationship between speakers' attitudes and their media consumption.

First, I present the research questions based on attitudes in section 4.2.1 followed by a brief discussion on methodology in section 4.2.2. Discussion of attitudes towards RP, GA and PE is given in section 4.2.3 followed by a discussion on the relationship between attitudes and media consumption and social factors in section 4.3. Detailed discussion on interactions between media consumption, attitudes and social factors is provided in section 4.4 followed by a chapter summary in section 4.5.

4.2.1 Research Questions: attitude related

i. What are the attitudes towards native and non-native accents of English among Pakistani speakers of English?
ii. How are speakers' attitudes towards native and non-native accents of English conditioned by the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status?
iii. What is the nature of the correlation between speaker's media consumption and speakers' attitudes towards native and non-native accents of English?

4.2.2 Methodology

I describe the individual questions to present the general picture of speakers' attitudes towards different dimensions of the British, American and Pakistani accents of English. As explained earlier, responses to attitudinal questions were obtained from participants using a 5 point Likert scale. All the responses are described using violin plots to present participants' responses towards different dimensions of native and non-native accents of English.

After the analysis of attitude and media, mixed effects modelling was used to examine the relationship between speakers' attitudes towards accent variety and media consumption, and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status.

4.2.3 Attitudes towards different accents of English

The questions of the attitude portion of the questionnaire were based on a five-point Likert scale in which 1 denotes 'strongly disagree' and 5 denotes 'strongly agree'. The questionnaire contains 36 attitude related questions. There are three categories under which most of the question asked in this online survey can be categorised: solidarity, status and personal preferences. This following section sheds light on how the statements related to solidarity, status and personal preferences have been rated by the participants.

Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9, shown below, present a comparison of the ratings for British, American and Pakistani accents of English. As we can see, the British accent of English was rated more favourably by the majority of the speakers in all the questions except one question that deals with life style cultures. Pakistani speakers gave a higher rating to Pakistani culture and life style. Likewise, the American accent of English received a higher rating than the Pakistani accent on most of the dimensions. The plots show that the British accent of English

is the favourite accent among Pakistani speakers of English, while the American accent of English is second most favourite accent among Pakistani speakers of English. Whereas Pakistani accent of English is the least favourite model of accent among Pakistani speakers of English. The British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent have been rated in a descending order.

Table 4.8 Questions for attitudes section

British Accent Questions	**American Accent Questions**	**Pak Accent Questions**
Q67. I like the British accent	Q83. I like the American accent	Q98. I like the Pakistani accent of English
Q68. The British accent is friendly	Q84. The American accent is friendly	Q102. The Pakistani accent is friendly
Q69. The British accent is trendy	86. The American accent is trendy	Q104. The Pakistani accent is trendy
Q70. The British accent is pleasant	Q85. The American accent is pleasant	Q103. The Pakistani accent of English is pleasant
Q71. The British accent is a symbol of intelligence	Q87. The American accent is symbol of intelligence	Q105. The Pakistani accent is a symbol of intelligence
Q72. People value the British Accent	Q88. People value the American accent	Q106. People value the Pakistani accent
Q73. The British accent is popular	Q89. The American accent is popular	Q107. The Pakistani accent is popular
Q74. The British accent is modern and stylish	Q90. The American accent is modern and stylish	Q108. The Pakistani accent is modern and stylish

Q77. The British accent can help me find a good job	Q92. American accent will help me get a good job	Q99. The Pakistani accent of English can help me find a good job
Q78. The British accent is powerful and influential	Q93. The American accent is influential and powerful	Q100. The Pakistani accent is influential and powerful
Q81. People can get more attention with British accent in official and social gatherings	Q95. People can get more attention with American accent in official and social gatherings	Q109. People can get more attention with the Pakistani accent in social and official gatherings
82. British culture and life style is really good	Q97. American culture and life style is really good	Q111. Pakistani culture and life style is really good

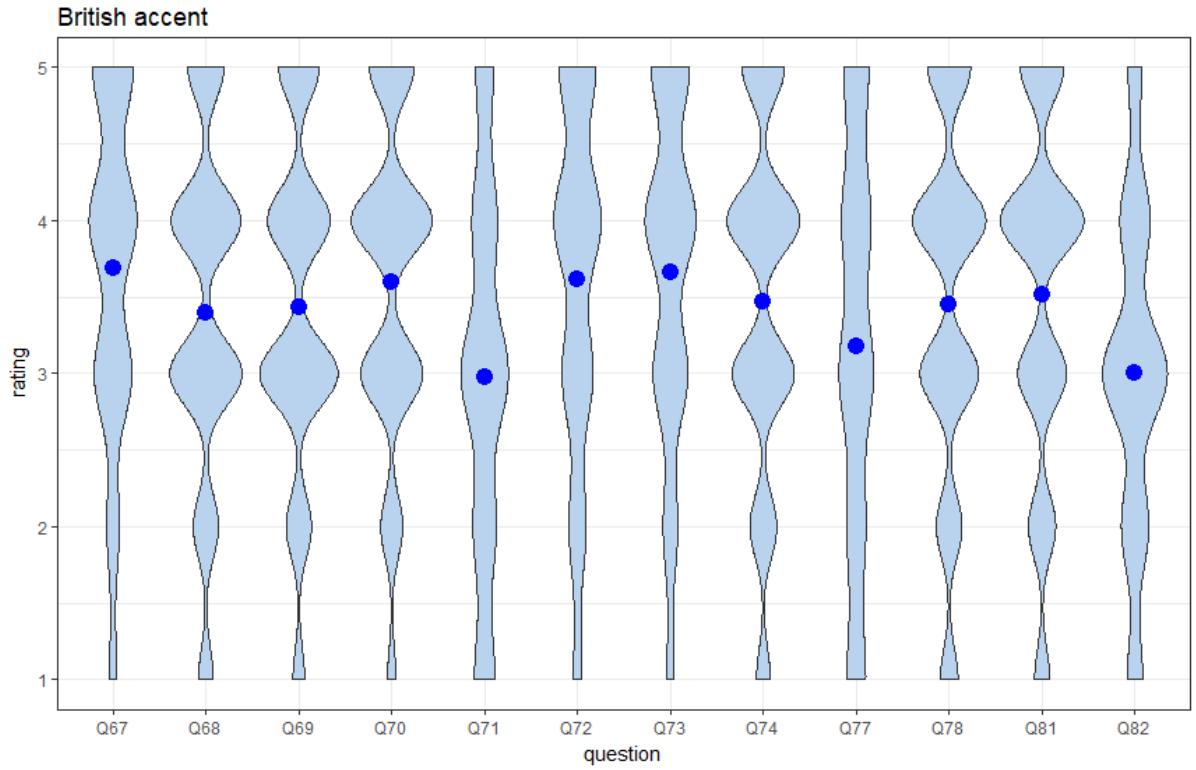

Figure 4.7 British accent rating

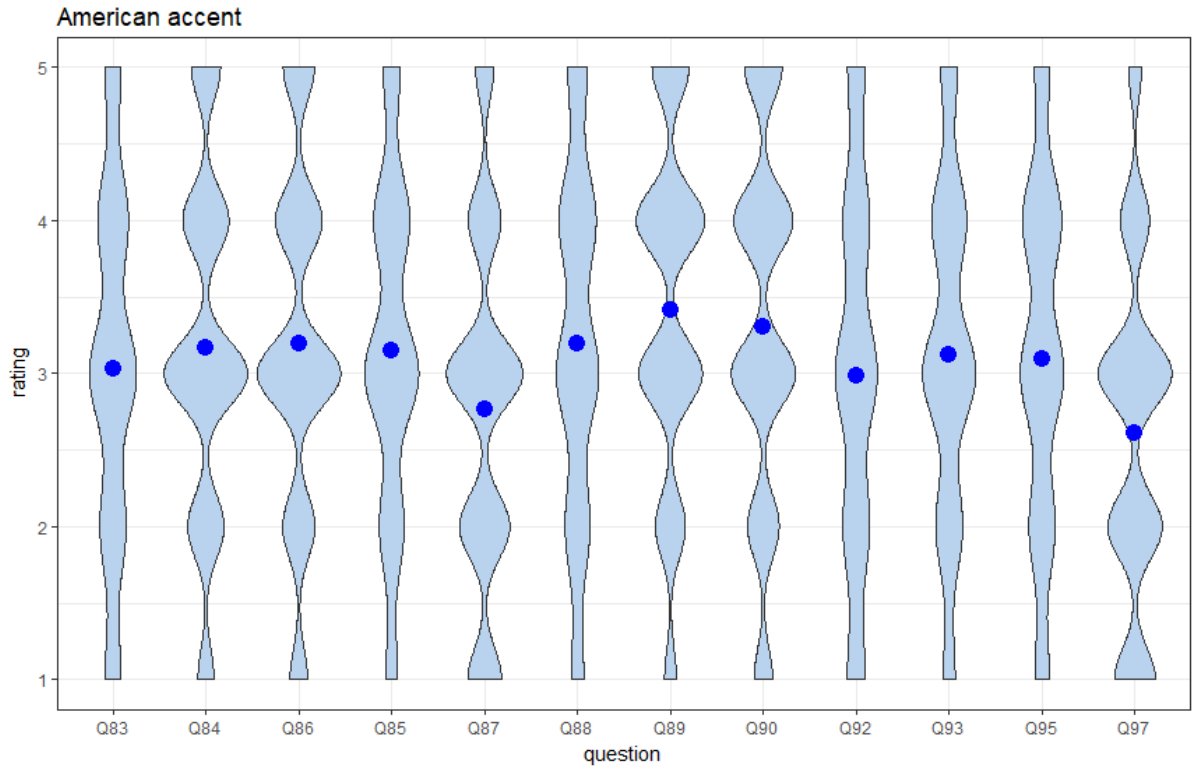

Figure 4.8 American accent rating

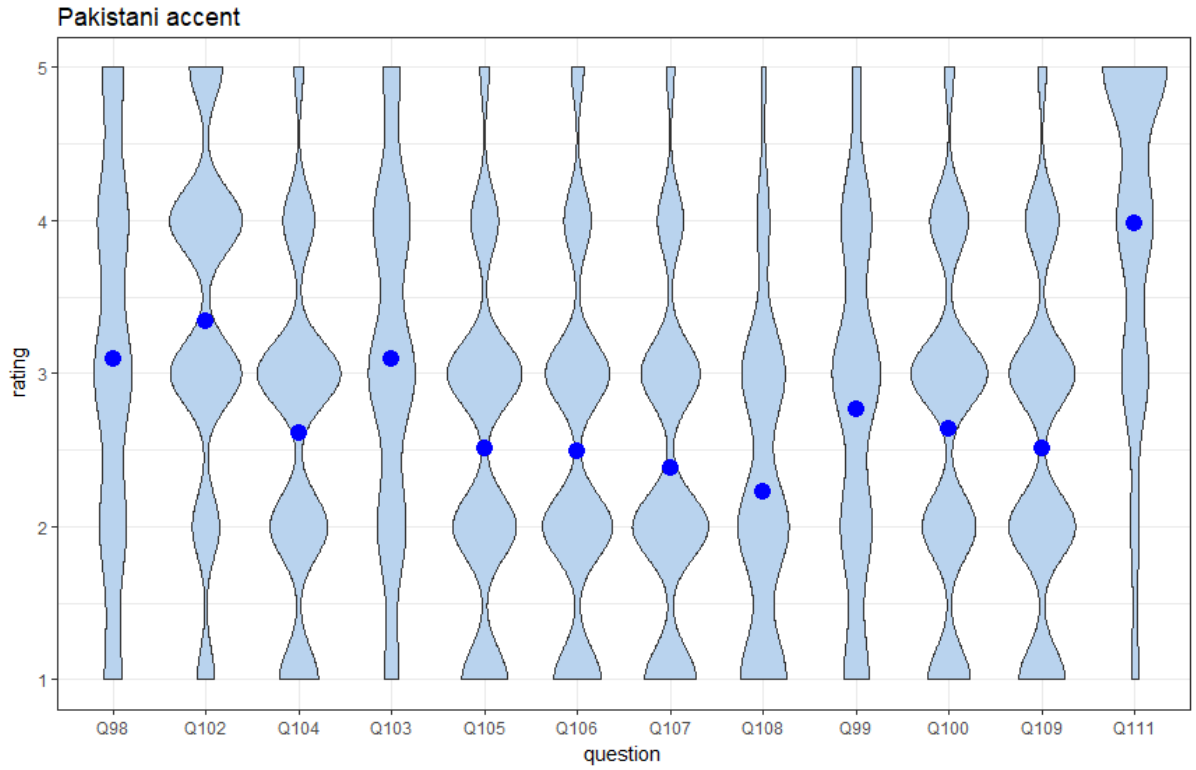

Figure 4.9 Pakistani accent rating

Now I discuss how participants responded to each question related to British, American and Pakistani accents of English.

The first question on each of the figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating on a scale of liking. The plots show that the British accent received the highest rating while the American and Pakistani accents were rated equally. According to my informal observation, most Pakistani speakers like British and American accents. It was expected that American accent would be rated higher than the Pakistani accent. The British accent received highest ranking as expected, a clear indication of the British accent being the most liked model of accent among Pakistani speakers of English. It is noteworthy that the Pakistani accent was rated equal to the American

accent. This is probably an indication of the growing liking and acceptability of the Pakistani accent of English.

The second bars in figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 show the rating received by three varieties of accents on the dimension of friendliness. As we can see, participants rated all the accents similarly. For instance, the median score for all three accents is 3, with variation in responses across the participants ranging between 1, strongly disagree, and 5, strongly agree. It was expected that the British accent would be rated the highest and the Pakistani accent would get the lowest rating. It is interesting to see that results are in contradiction to what I expected. This shows that Pakistani speakers believe that the Pakistani accent of English is as friendly as other standard accents of American and British English. This could be because of the liking for their indigenous style of speech and sense of ownership for the Pakistani variety of English.

The third bars in figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 show the rating of British, American and Pakistani accents, respectively, on the dimension of trendiness. This plot shows that the British and American accents were rated the highest whereas the Pakistani accent was rated the lowest by the respondents. Both the British and American accents received a similar rating on the scale of trendiness. I expected that the British accent would be rated higher than the American accent on the dimension of 'trendiness' because of the popularity of British English in Pakistan.

The fourth bars in figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 show speakers' responses towards the three accent varieties on a scale of pleasantness. The respondents rated the British accent the highest whereas the American and Pakistani accents received a similar rating. As we can see, there is a low range of variability across speakers in the case of British accent. In the case of American and Pakistani accents, there is a higher degree of variability across speakers. It is noteworthy

that the Pakistani accent has been rated equal to the American accent, probably an indication of the rising sense of belonging and ownership for the Pakistani accent.

The fifth question on each of the figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating of the three accents on the status dimension of intelligence. Respondents rated the British accent the highest whereas American and Pakistani accents received an equal rating. It seems that the majority of Pakistani speakers disagree that American and Pakistani accents of English are a symbol of intelligence. It was expected that the American accent would be rated higher than the Pakistani accent because of it being a native accent.

The sixth question on figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating in response to 'people value the X accent'. Respondents ranked the British accent the highest while the Pakistani accent received the lowest rating. The American accent was ranked in the middle. The plots also show the spread and variability in responses across speakers. The plot for the British accent shows that the majority of the respondents agree that people value the British accent. The results also show that the American accent is valued by people in Pakistan. In the case of the Pakistani accent, the majority of the respondents agree that the Pakistani accent of English is not valued as much as British and American accents of English.

The seventh question on each of the figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating of British, American and Pakistani accents, respectively, on a scale of popularity. The British accent was ranked the most popular whereas the American accent was rated the second most popular. Respondents rated the Pakistani accent the lowest on the popularity scale. This means that the British accent continues to hold the place of most popular accent in Pakistan, as in other parts of the world. The American accent, on the other hand, received second place, which indicates that the American accent is not as popular in Pakistan as the British accent. However, this

suggests that the American accent is considered more popular than the Pakistani variety of accent. If we look at the variability across the data in the case of the American accent, we see that a considerable number of respondents strongly agreed that the American accent is popular. Likewise, the variation in responses towards the Pakistani accent shows that some of the speakers seem to agree that the Pakistani accent is popular. This suggests that although the Pakistani accent of English has been rated the lowest, there are speakers who reported that the Pakistani accent is popular, probably because of a sense of ownership for the Pakistani accent of English.

The eighth question on figurer 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 presents the rating of the three accents on the status dimension of being modern and stylish. As we can see, the British accent received the highest rating, while the Pakistani accent received the lowest rating. The American accent was ranked in the middle. The range of variability across the speakers, in the case of the Pakistani accent, is the highest. As the plot shows, there are respondents who rated the Pakistani accent as equal to other accents. However, overall, the majority of the respondents reported the Pakistani accent as less modern and stylish.

The ninth question on figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating in response to 'X accent can help me find a good job'. Plots show that British, American and Pakistani accent received the same rating. This shows that Pakistani speakers believe that all accents are equally good for getting a job. It was expected that respondents would rate the British and American accents higher than the Pakistani accent because people attach more value to British and American accents of English.

The tenth question on figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating of British, American and Pakistani accents, respectively, in response to 'X accent is powerful and influential'. The

British accent was rated the highest while the Pakistani accent received the lowest rating. The American accent was ranked in the middle. This shows that Pakistani speakers of English believe that the British accent is the most powerful and influential. This also shows that the American accent is considered powerful and influential by Pakistani speakers of English. It seems that the Pakistani accent of English is not considered powerful and influential by the majority of the respondents.

The eleventh question on figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating in response to 'people can get more attention with X accent in official and social gatherings'. The British accent was rated the highest while the American accent received second place. The Pakistani accent was ranked the lowest. This shows that Pakistani speakers of English believe that the British accent can help them get attention in social and official gatherings. Likewise, the American accent is believed to be important for seeking attention in social and official gatherings. Although the majority of respondents believe that the Pakistani accent cannot attract attention in gatherings, there are still a considerable number of respondents who agree that the Pakistani accent can get people attention in social and official gatherings.

The last question on figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 shows the rating of British, American and Pakistani lifestyle and culture respectively. Pakistani culture received the highest ranking and American culture received the lowest rating. British culture was ranked in the middle. This shows that Pakistani speakers like their Pakistani culture the most. The high rating for Pakistani culture and lifestyle is a clear indication of respondents' strong sense of cultural identity. If we look at the spread and variability across speakers, we see that there are respondents who did not rate Pakistani culture and lifestyle as high as others. This shows that not all Pakistani speakers believe that Pakistani culture and lifestyle is good. The rating of British culture and life style

shows that there are a considerable number of respondents who believe that British culture and lifestyle is good. This is probably because of the colonial past of the country.

4.2.3.1 Accent rating and gender

Figure 4.10 shows the variation across men and women in their accent preferences. Both men and women rated British and American accents of English higher than the Pakistani accent. The plots show slight differences between men and women in their responses towards the three accents. We can see that women rated the British accent higher than men. Similarly, the American accent received more a favourable rating from women than men. This shows that Pakistani women prefer British and American accents of English over the Pakistani accent of English. On the other hand, the majority of the men rated Pakistani accent higher than women.

The statistical regression analysis in section 4.3 will confirm whether there is any variation between speakers because of their gender.

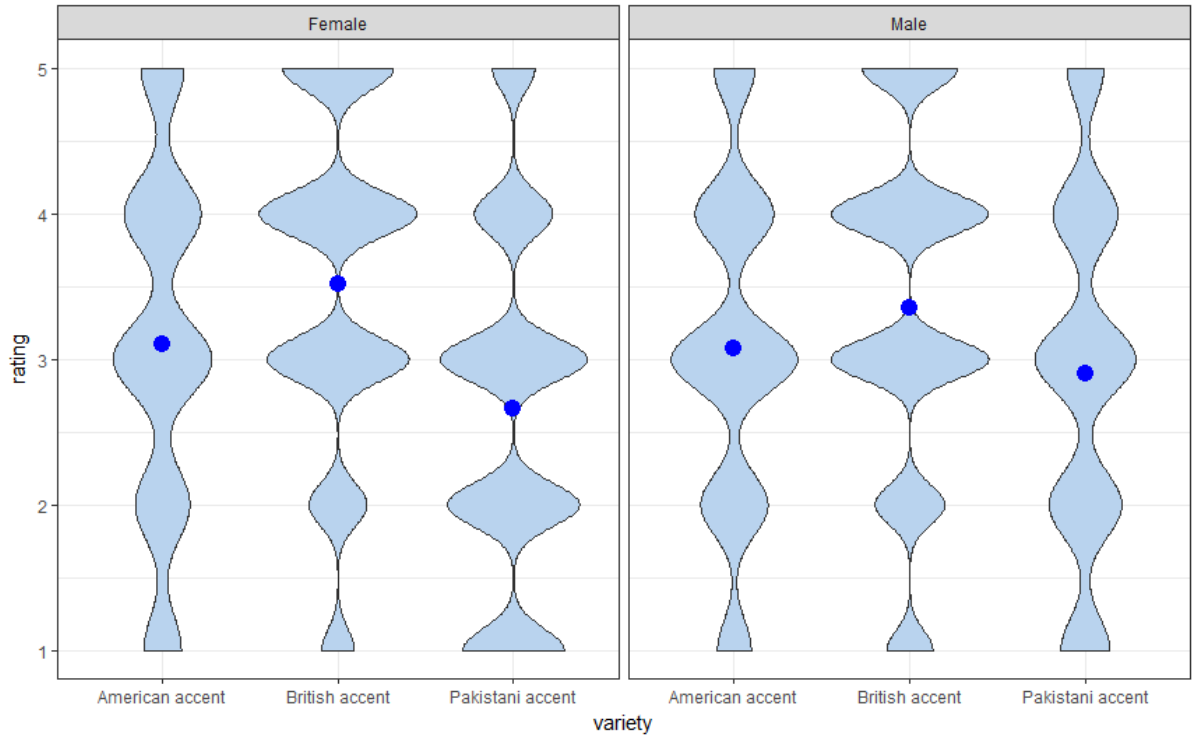

Figure 4.10 Accent preferences between men and women

4.2.3.2 Accent rating and socioeconomic status

Figure 4.11 shows the rating of British, American and Pakistani accents of English by four categories of socioeconomic status. In the case of the British accent, there is no noticeable variation between low, lower-mid and higher-mid category speakers. The speakers in the high category seem to have rated the British accent slightly lower. A similar pattern can be observed in the case of the American accent as well. The higher category participants appear to have rated the British and American accents slightly less favourably. In the case of the Pakistani accent, there is not considerable variation across all four categories. The statistical regression

analysis in section 4.3 will confirm whether there is any variation between speakers because of their socioeconomic status.

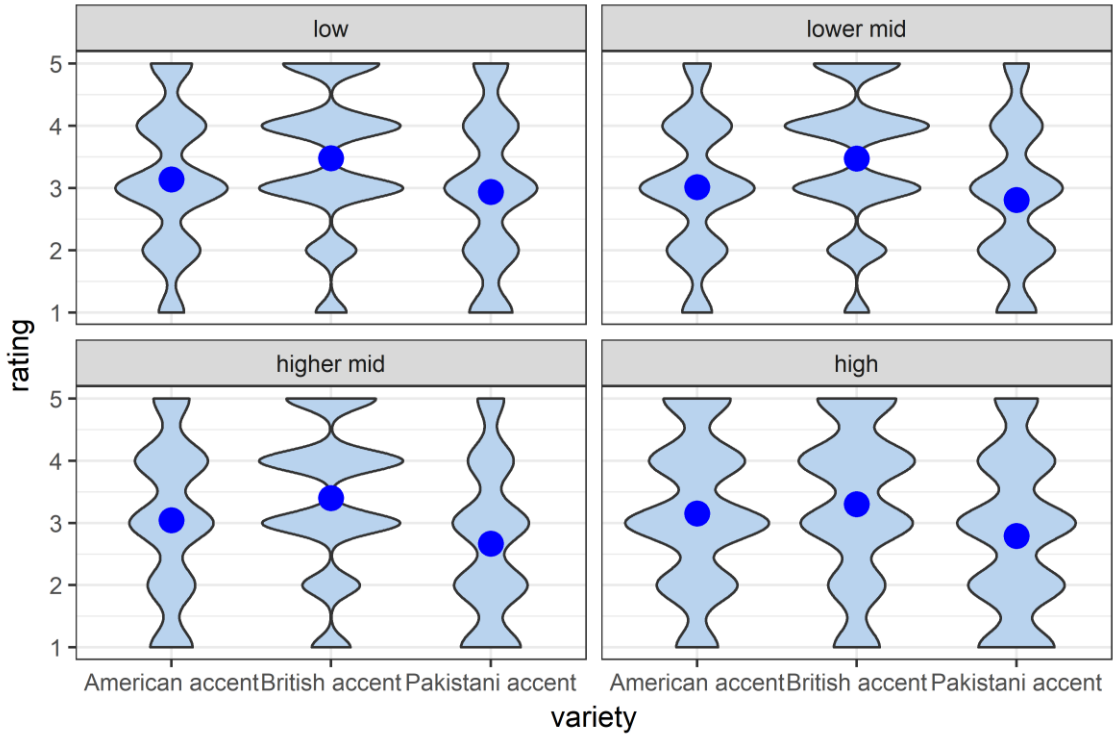

Figure 4.11 Accent Rating and Socioeconomic Status

4.3 Relationship between accent rating, media consumption and social factors

As discussed in chapters 3, information about socio-demographic factors was also collected to calculate a socioeconomic index score to see whether the attitudes and media consumption of the participants are correlated with their socioeconomic index. A detailed discussion of the methodology followed for calculating the socioeconomic index has already been provided in chapter 3. One of my research questions was to examine how social factors might account for the variation in the data. There are mainly two social variables, gender and socioeconomic status, that I investigated in the attitude and media consumption portion. After computing the attitudinal score of all the participants, mixed effects regression models were applied to see the nature and degree of correlation between attitudes towards linguistic variety, type of media consumption and the social factors of gender and social status. Participant and question were added as random effects with gender, socioeconomic status and types of media consumption as predictors. As discussed in chapter 3, the most important step in the regression analysis is the identification of the best fitting model. This was achieved by beginning with all possible factors and interactions, then following a stepwise procedure to eliminate non-significant factors and interactions. At each step, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the models. ANOVA compares the model AICs generated by the regression, and the model with the lower AIC value is considered the better model. The syntax of the final model for the accent rating is given below.

(rating~variety*(sex+soc.status.index+medEngLangEnt+medEngLangLearn+medPakInd+medEngLangSoc)+(1|ID)

Table 4.9 presents the results of the regression analysis. The coefficients of British accent and Pakistani accent are significant with p values of 0.000195 and 0.038199, respectively. Some interactions between accent rating and social factors are also significant. For instance, the interactions of both British and Pakistani accents with gender are significant (p = .000231; p = 3.31e-08). The coefficient of the interaction between British accent and socioeconomic status is also significant, with a p value of 0.002232. The interaction between the British accent and English media for entertainment (medEngLangEnt) is significant with a p value of 0.025792. The interaction between British accent and medEngLangLearn and the interaction between Pakistani accent and medEngLangLearn are significant with p values of 2e-16 and 0.000725, respectively. Likewise, the interaction between British accent and Pak-India media (medPakInd) is significant with a p value of 3.62e-11. Similarly, the interaction between British accent and medEngLangsoc is also significant with a p value of 2e-16.

Table 4.9 Relationship between variety rating, media consumption, gender and socioeconomic status as generated by mixed effects regression model

Fixed effects:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	3.190e+00	1.363e-01	1.425e+02	23.401	< 2e-16 ***
varietyBritish accent	6.019e-01	1.512e-01	5.775e+01	3.980	0.000195 ***
varietyPakistani accent	-3.208e-01	1.512e-01	5.775e+01	-2.121	0.038199 *
sexMale	-2.280e-02	5.875e-02	6.012e+02	-0.388	0.698110
soc.status.index	-6.802e-03	6.156e-03	6.012e+02	-1.105	0.269675
medEngLangEnt	4.801e-02	3.782e-02	6.012e+02	1.269	0.204875
medEngLangLearn	-3.663e-02	3.244e-02	6.012e+02	-1.129	0.259307
medPakInd	1.675e-01	3.310e-02	6.012e+02	5.061	5.56e-07 ***
medEngLangSoc	1.084e-01	2.972e-02	6.012e+02	3.649	0.000286 ***
varietyBritishaccent:sexMale	-1.583e-01	4.299e-02	1.421e+04	-3.683	0.000231 ***
varietyPak accent:sexMale	2.376e-01	4.299e-02	1.421e+04	5.527	3.31e-08 ***
varietyBritish accent:soc.status	-1.378e-02	4.505e-03	1.421e+04	-3.058	0.002232 **
VarietyPakistaniaccent:soc.status	-8.313e-03	4.505e-03	1.421e+04	-1.845	0.065011 .
varietyBritish accent:medEngLangEnt	-6.171e-02	2.768e-02	1.421e+04	-2.230	0.025792 *
varietyPakistaniaccent:medEngLangEnt	-1.060e-03	2.768e-02	1.421e+04	-0.038	0.969460
varietyBritishaccent:medEngLangLearn	2.213e-01	2.374e-02	1.421e+04	9.324	< 2e-16 ***
varietyPakistaccent:medEngLangLearn	8.024e-02	2.374e-02	1.421e+04	3.381	0.000725 ***

varietyBritish accent:medPakInd	2.923e-02	2.422e-02	1.421e+04	1.207	0.227444
varietyPakistani accent:medPakInd	-1.604e-01	2.422e-02	1.421e+04	-6.624	3.62e-11 ***
varietyBritish accent:medEngLangSoc	-2.023e-01	2.175e-02	1.421e+04	-9.304	< 2e-16 ***
varietyPakistani accent:medEngLangSoc	6.646e-04	2.175e-02	1.421e+04	0.031	0.975619

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1					

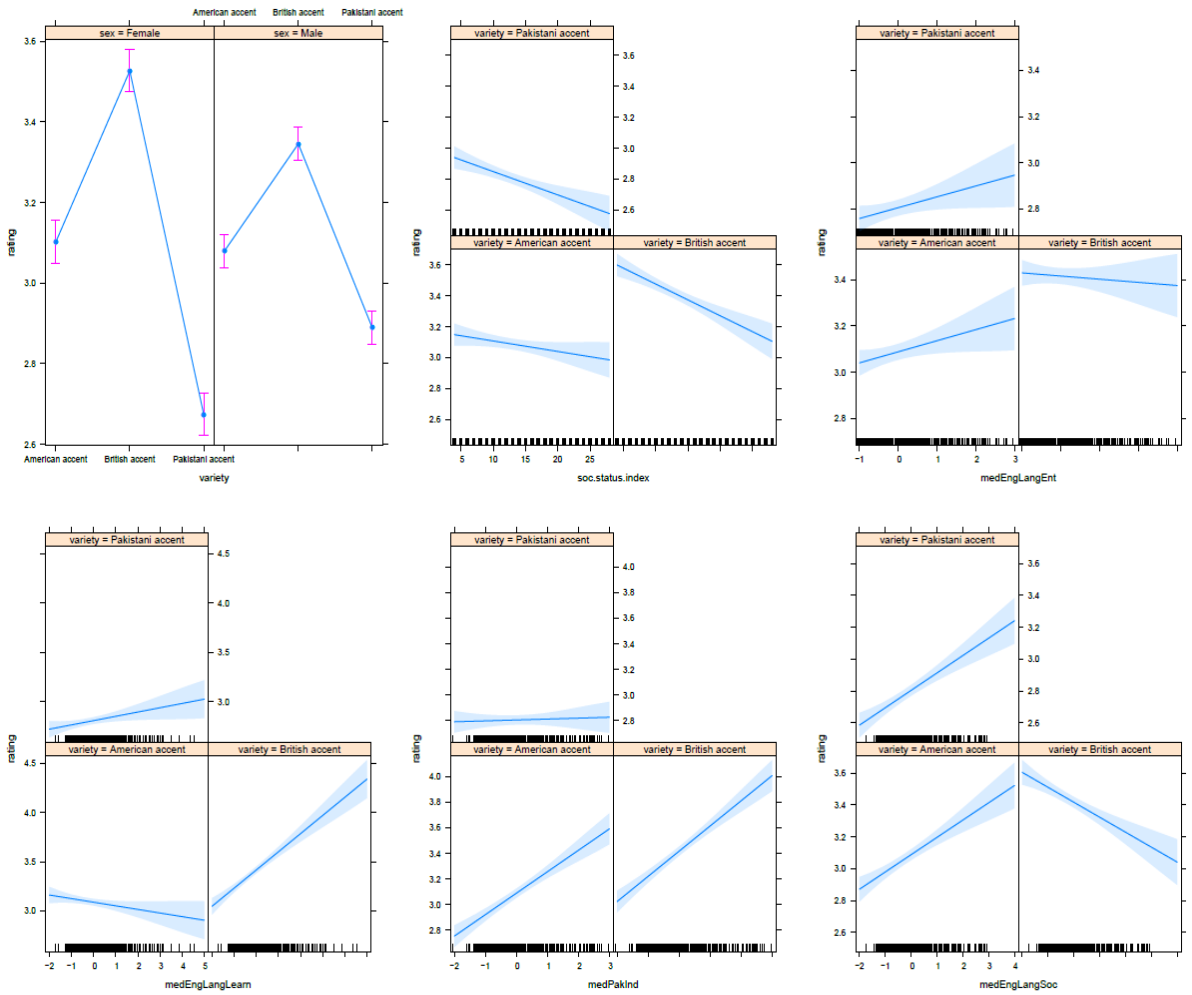

Figure 4.12 Plot showing effect of media consumption, socioeconomic status and gender on variety rating

Figure 4.12 plots the relationship between accent variety and social factors. The top left plot shows that the British accent variety was rated higher than the American and the Pakistani variety of accent by both men and women. Likewise, the American accent was rated higher than Pakistani accent of English by both men and women. This plot also shows that there is variation in rating between men and women. Women rated the British accent higher than men. There is not much difference between men and women in the case of the American accent

rating. In the case of the Pakistani accent of English, men rated the Pakistani accent of English higher than women.

The plot of the interaction between variety rating and socioeconomic status (top middle plot) shows that participants with higher socioeconomic status rated British and Pakistani accents lower. However, the effect of socioeconomic status on the rating of the American accent is less significant. The Top right plot shows the relationship between the accent variety rating and medEngLangEnt (English language media for entertainment). It shows that the higher the medEngLangEnt score, the higher the evaluation of both PE and GA (there is no significant difference between these two, because the slope is the same). RP is rated higher overall regardless but it shows the opposite trend: the higher the MedEngLangEnt score, the lower the evaluation of RP. The bottom left plot indicates that participants who use medEngLangLearn are more likely to rate the British accent higher. Participants with a higher amount of media for English language learning (medEngLangLearn) also rated the Pakistani accent of English higher but the American accent lower. Participants with a higher consumption of Pakistani and Indian media (medPakInd) rated the British accent higher than the American accent. The bottom middle plot shows that participants with higher score of medPakInd rated American and British accents higher. The plot does not show any significant relationship between medPakInd and rating of the Pakistani accent of English. The bottom left plot shows that participants with higher consumption of medEngLangSoc (English media for cultural and social learning) tend to rate American and Pakistani accents higher whereas they rated the British accent lower.

The combined model for the three accents shows interactions with variety. In the following sections, I will look at each variety of accent separately for clarity.

4.3.1 Rating of Pakistani Accent

Another mixed effects model was run to see how speakers' attitudes towards the Pakistani accent are conditioned by type of media consumption, socioeconomic status and gender. The model contains media consumption, gender, and socioeconomic status as fixed effects, and participant and question as random effects to reduce the possibility of individual bias. The significant factors were retained in the model and others were removed from the modelling following stepwise regression. ANOVA was constantly applied to decide the better model until the best fitting model was achieved. The syntax of the model is given below:

(rating~sex+medEngLangSoc+medPakInd+soc.status.index*medPakInd+(1|ID)+(1|question)

The estimate column in table 4.10 presents the nature and degree of effect of the independent variables on participants' attitudes towards the Pakistani accent of English. The results of the model indicate that the coefficients of gender and English media for social learning (medEngLangSoc) are significant with p values of 2e-16 and 0.007950, respectively. Similarly, medPakInd is approaching significance with a p value of 0.060233. The interaction between Pak-India media and socioeconomic status is also significant with a p value of 0.013843.

Table 4.10 Model showing Relationship between Pakistani accent rating and social factors

Fixed effects:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	2.789619	0.183255	37.230893	15.223	< 2e-16 ***
sexMale	0.220828	0.082787	406.140465	2.667	0.007950 **
medEngLangSoc	0.136988	0.040945	406.140468	3.346	0.000897 ***
medPakInd	-0.192407	0.102109	406.140470	-1.884	0.060233 .
soc.status.index	-0.010390	0.007146	406.140467	-1.454	0.146743
medPakInd:soc.status	0.017058	0.006901	406.140470	2.472	0.013843 *

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1					

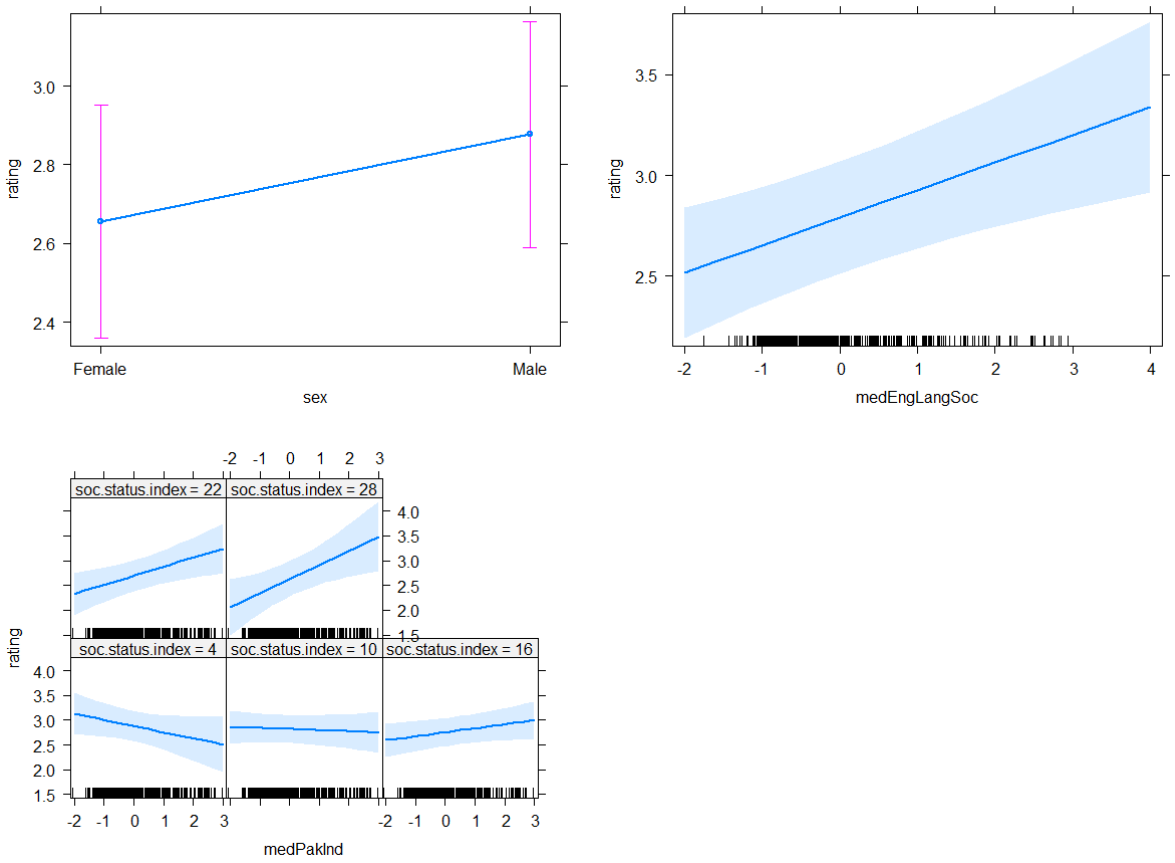

Figure 4.13 Plots Showing relationship between Pakistani accent and media, gender and socioeconomic status

Figure 4.13 plots the results of the model from table 4.10. The top left plot shows that men have more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent than women. Likewise, as shown in the top right plot, participants with higher consumption of English media for social learning (medEngLangSoc) reported more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent . The bottom plot shows the interaction between medPakInd and socioeconomic status. This plot shows that

participants with higher socioeconomic status and higher scores of medPakInd are more likely to rate the pakistani accent higher.

4.3.2 Rating of British Accent

As for the Pakistani accent, a mixed effects regression model was run to see the nature of the correlation between participants' attitudes towards' the British accent and media consumption, gender and socioeconomic status. All types of media consumption, attitudes, gender and scoio-economic status were modelled with participants and question as random effects to avoid individual bias. The syntax of the model is as follows:

(rating~sex*soc.status.index+medPakInd+medEngLangSoc+medEngLangLearn+sex*medEngLangEnt+soc.status.index+(1|ID)+(1|question)

Table 4.11 presents the results of the model. The coefficient of medPakInd (Pak-India media) is significant with a p value of 6.56e-06, which shows that speakers with higher scores of medPakInd are more likely to rate the British accent favourably. On the other hand, medEngLangSoc is negatively correlated, with a p value of 0.0212 showing that partciants with higher scores of medEngLangSoc are less likely to rate the British accent favourably. However, medEngLangLearn is positively correlated with a p value of 6.78e-06. This means that partcipants with higher consumption of medEngLangLearn are more likely to rate the British accent higher. The interaction between gender and social status is also significant with a p value of 0.0205. This shows that men with higher socioeconomic status tend to rate the British accent less favourably. The interaction between gender and medEngLangEnt is also significant with

a p value of 0.0126. Men with higher scores of medEngLangEnt rated the British accent higher than women with higher scores of medEngLangEnt.

Table 4.11 Relationship between British accent rating, media, gender and socioeconomic status

Fixed effects:						
	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)	
(Intercept)	3.464072	0.205889	338.488876	16.825	< 2e-16	***
sexMale	0.328596	0.233526	406.377733	1.407	0.1602	
soc.status.index	0.002626	0.012956	406.377706	0.203	0.8395	
medPakInd	0.197383	0.043216	406.377779	4.567	6.56e-06	***
medEngLangSoc	-0.089857	0.038841	406.377779	-2.313	0.0212	*
medEngLangLearn	0.193985	0.042540	406.377779	4.560	6.78e-06	***
medEngLangEnt	-0.144365	0.071081	406.377755	-2.031	0.0429	*
sexMale:soc.status	-0.038182	0.016408	406.377736	-2.327	0.0205	*
sexMale:medEngLangEnt	0.224519	0.089577	406.377767	2.506	0.0126	*

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1						

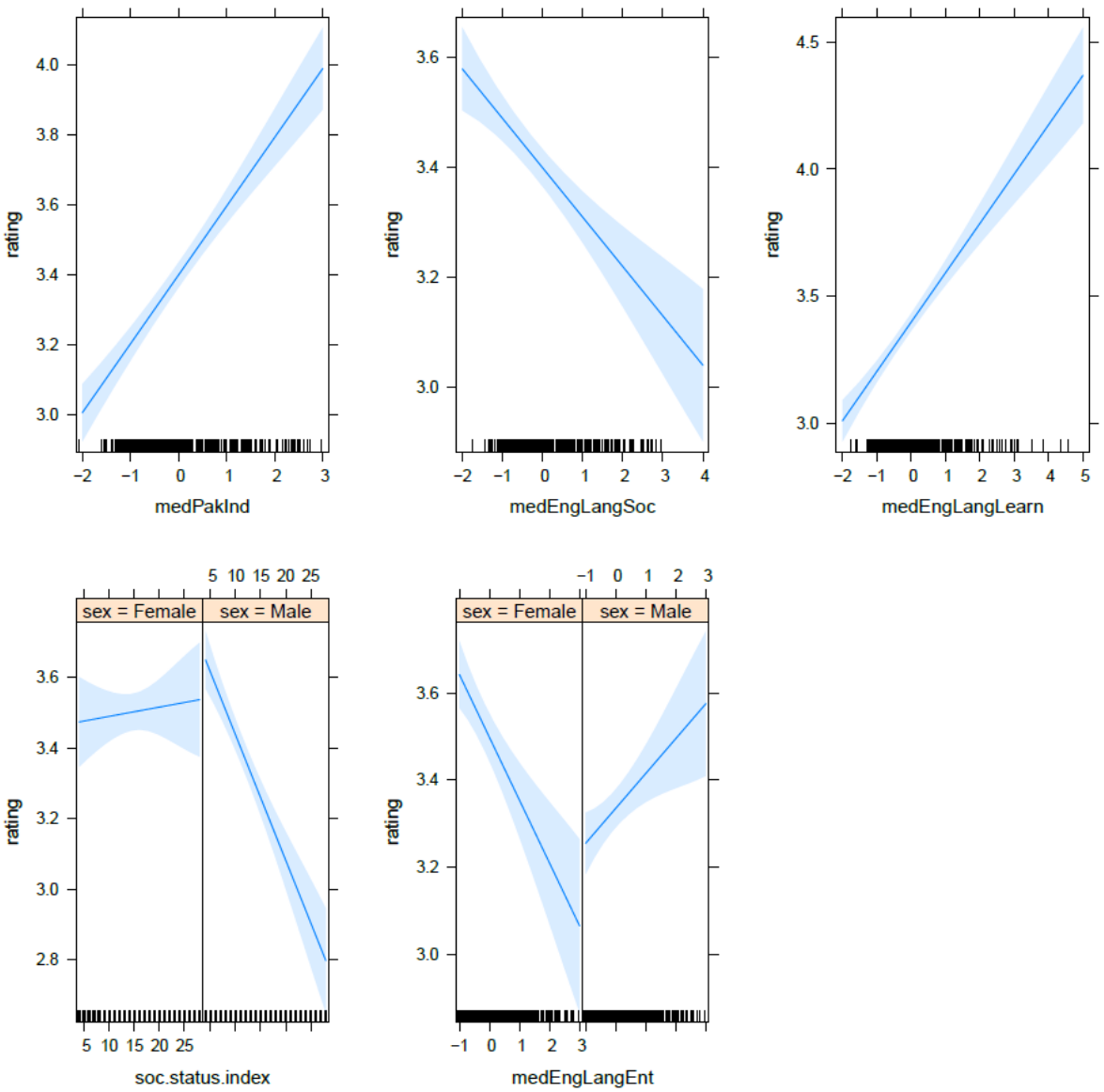

Figure 4.14 Relationship between British accent rating and media consumption, gender and socioeconomic status

Figure 4.14 presents the plots for the British accent rating and fixed effects of media consumption types, gender and socioeconomic status. The plots show that participants' attitudes towards British accent are significantly conditioned by their gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption. The plot (top left) for medPakInd shows a positive relationship between British variety rating and medPakInd (Pakistani and Indian media) score which means

that participants with higher scores of medPakInd rated the British accent higher. On the other hand, the plot (top middle) for medEngLangSoc shows a negative relationship between British accent rating and medEngLangSoc (English media for cultural and social learning) which means participants with higher score of medEngLangSoc rated the British accent less favourably. However, the plot (top right) for medEngLangLearn shows a positive relationship between British accent rating and medEngLangLearn which means that participants with higher scores of medEngLangLearn (English media for language learning) are more likely to rate the British accent higher. The plot (bottom left) of the interaction of soc.status.index and gender shows that men with higher socioeconomic status rated the British accent lower. Women with higher consumption of media for entertainment expressed more positive attitudes towards the British accent than men with higher use of English media for entertainment.

4.3.3 Rating of American Accent

In a similar fashion, a mixed effects model was run to see how participants' attitudes towards the American accent are conditioned by their gender, type of media consumption and socio economic status. The final model is as follows:

rating~medPakInd+medEngLangSoc+(1|ID)+(1|question)

Table 4.15 shows that there is a significant correlation between speakers' attitudes towards the American accent of English and their media consumption. The coefficients of medPakInd and medEngLangSoc are significant with p values of 0.000129 and 0.016017, respectively. This suggests that participants with higher consumption of medPakInd and medEngLangSoc are more likely to have more positive attitudes towards the American accent.

Table 4.15 American Accent rating and type of media consumption

Fixed effects:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	df	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	3.08825	0.07335	24.06177	42.105	< 2e-16 ***
medPakInd	0.16667	0.04311	406.53569	3.866	0.000129 ***
medEngLangSoc	0.10427	0.04311	406.53569	2.419	0.016017 *

Signif. codes:	0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1				

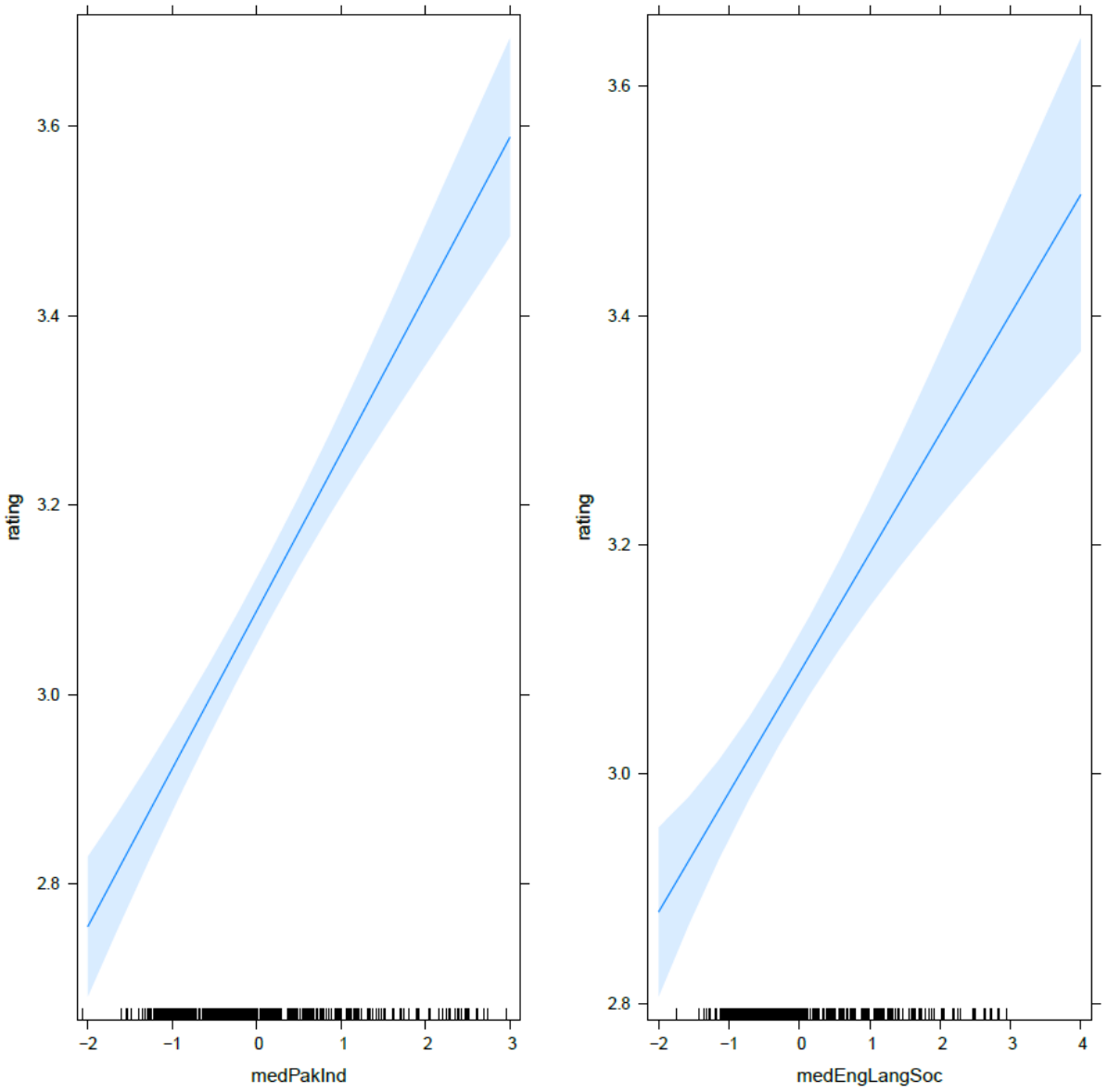

Figure 4.15 American accent rating and type of media consumption

Figure 4.15 plots the results of the model showing the direction of the relationship between American accent rating and type of media consumption. We see that the direction of the relationship for both medPakInd and medEngLangSoc is the same. Participants with higher consumption of medPakInd (Pakistani and Indian media) and medEngLangSoc (English media for cultural and social learning) rated the American accent variety more favourably.

4.4 Discussion

The analysis of the media consumption practices and language attitudes shows a lot of variation among Pakistani speakers of English. Pakistani young men and women reported the use of a considerable amount of English and non-English media and the findings are in agreement with other research studies conducted in Pakistan (e.g. Abbas, 1993; Anjum, 2012; A. Hassan & Daniyal, 2013). Participants reported the use of American and British media for a variety of reasons including entertainment, information, and language learning. The findings of this research confirm the claims made by Anjum (2012) who found that most of the respondents were found to be interested in foreign TV channels and English language media programmes.

The findings of the study show that the British accent was rated the highest on all dimensions of solidarity except friendliness, where all three accents were rated equally. Overall, the American accent received the second highest ranking. Similarly, the British accent was ranked the highest on all of the status the dimensions except the dimension of being useful in finding employment, where it was rated equal to GA and PE. The findings of the research are in disagreement with the previous studies (e.g. Cheyne, 1970; Giles, 1970; Hiraga, 2005; Milroy & McClenaghan 1977) that reported that non-standard accents received higher ratings than RP on solidarity dimensions. The findings of this study show that the American accent was ranked equal to RP on the dimensions of friendliness and trendiness, but lower on the dimensions of pleasantness and popularity, which is in disgreement with the previous studies that reported the American accent was rated higher than RP on dimension of solidaritry (e.g. Hiraga, 2005; Stewart et al., 1985). However, the findings of this study are in agreement with the previous studies that reported that RP was rated highest on dimensions of status (e.g. Giles, 1970; Hiraga, 2005; Milroy & McClenaghan 1977). The findings of this research also corrobrate the

previous studies conducted on L2 speakers which reported that RP is considered to be the prestigious variety of English (e.g. Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Ladegaard, 2000; Parveen & Mehmood, 2013).

One reason for positive attitudes towards British English could be the country's colonial past. Pakistan was once a British colony and English was an important language of the United India. Even after the partition of India and Pakistan in 1947, English continued to be an official language of Pakistan. Pakistani speakers generally feel positively towards British English because of a general perception about the British accent being the standard model accent. Generally, British English is considered to be the standard model of English especially for pedagogical purposes. That is most likely why participants reported highly positive attitudes towards the British accent. Another possible reason for the higher rating of the British accent could be because of the stereotypical notion of Pakistani people that the British accent is the best and other accents of English are sub-standard. This internalised stereotypical notion perhaps accounts for the possible low esteem or linguistic inferiority they attach with their own variety of accent. This linguistic inferiority is the indication of 'linguistic self-hatred' among Pakistani speakers, as found in the speakers of the New York accent (see Labov, 2006, p. 329). Similar linguistic self-hatred was reported by some other studies conducted in Montreal (See Lambert, 1967), in Glasgow (Macaulay, 1975), and in Dublin (Edwards, 1979). While explaining the possible reason for this linguistic self-hatred, Labov (2006) remarked that this linguistic self-hatred could be the outcome of immense pressure `towards conformity with middle class norms of speech' (p.331). In the Pakistani context, the strong liking and preference for native varieties is probably the outcome of the perceived pressure of the commonly held stereotypical notion that the British accent is superior and correct. The results of the survey are also a reflection of the prevailing notion among Pakistani speakers that English is the native

speech of the British and therefore British English (RP) should be the preferred model. In the context of World Englishes, it could be the pressure to conform to inner circle English (Kachru, 1997) that make them rate native accents (British and American) higher and their own variety of accent lower.

Sociodemographic characteristics were found to play a role in variation across the speakers. For example, the Pakistani accent was rated lower by women than men. This, most likely, shows that women are more status conscious and they prefer a standard accent (Labov, 1990). As discussed above, the gender divide in patriarchal societies such as Pakistani society is generally large, which may lead to a higher sense of status consciousness and linguistic insecurity among women. Women are known to be leaders in 'both the acquisition of new prestige patterns and the elimination of stigmatized forms' (Labov, 1990, p. 213). Pakistani men, who arguably enjoy a higher status of prestige in Pakistani society, probably possess a lower sense of linguistic insecurity. Speakers with a higher sense of 'linguistic insecurity are most sensitive' to standard norms (Labov, 1990, p. 213). That is most likely why men rated the Pakistani accent of English higher than women. The findings also suggest that the social factor of socioeconomic status is negatively correlated with accent ratings in the case of British accent. In other words, people with higher socioeconomic status rated a British accent lower. Probably, people with higher socioeconomic status are not concerned much about their accent since they already have acquired prestige in other ways (such as via their socioeconomic status, of course). Accents are sometimes used to gain economical gains and social prestige. Since people with higher socioeconomic status tend to have lower sense of linguistic insecurity (Labov, 2006), they, therefore, tend to rate standard norms of language less favourably. On the other hand, speakers with lower socioeconomic status show 'a profound linguistic insecurity' (Labov, 2006, p. 318). Moreover, prestigious form of a language may serve as a passport to

better social class. English is a symbol of high status and sophistication and is a ‘passport to success and upward social mobility’ in Pakistan (Cheema & Singh 2015, p. 47). That is most likely why speakers with lower socioeconomic status rated the British accent more favourably.

The findings also show that participants with higher consumption of English media for social learning reported more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent. It seems that the pakistani speakers who rate PE highly also happen to consume English language media for social learning. Also, there is positive corrrelation between Pakistani and India media and rating of British accent variety. This probably suggests that participants who rate the British accent positively also consume pakistani and indian media programmes. On the other hand, there is negative relationship between British accent rating and English media for cultural and social learning (medEngLangSoc) which means participants with higher score of medEngLangSoc rated the British accent less favourably. One reason for this could be the content of the medEngLangSoc which predominantly american. This means participants who happen to consume higher amount of English media for cultural and social learning tend to rate British accent lower. Secondly, the could also be because of the degree of attention paid to the media consumed. The active engagement with media content has more poweful impact than merely being exposed to the media content without any psychological engagement. (Gunter, 2000; Horton & Wohl, 1956; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013).

The findings also suggest that there is a relationship between type of media consumption and participants’ attitudes toward Pakistani, British and American accents of English. For instance, participants with higher scores for using English media for language learning rated the British accent more favourably. Likewise, participants with higher consumption of English language media for social and cultural learning rated the American accent favourably. Also, participants with higher socioeconomic status and higher scores for Pakistani and Indian media rated the

Pakistani accent favourably.The findings corroborate the suggestions made by Bayard et al. (2001) that there can be a relationship between spoken media and attitudes and preferences towards accents. Bayard et al. (2001, p. 22) argue that 'the American accent seems well on the way to equalling or even replacing RP as the prestige - or at least preferred -variety'. They argue that the shift of prestige from RP to American English could possibly be the result of media influence and that it is the reflection of 'American global hegemony in all its guises: fast foods, pop music, films, middle-class TV sitcom'(Bayard et al., 2001, p. 41). Speculating about the impact of media on attitudes, Bayard et al. (2001, p. 43) suggested that one way to examine the 'impact of global broadcast media on attitudes' is to investigate the accent preferred by L2 speakers in non-English speaking countries'. The findings of the present research show that there is a relationship between attitudes and the type of media consumption. American English has been reported to be the second most favourite accent overall among the participants. This could be because of media, as Bayard et al. (2001) suggested, because Pakistani young speakers engage with American media a lot through cable TV channels, YouTube and recorded content in the form of music and movies, as discussed above. This exposure to American language through media is a possible explanation for participants' positive attitudes towards American accent. However, I must remain cautious about this interpretation, since a relationship between attitudes and media consumption does not imply one effect is caused by the other.

4.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have presented a detailed analysis of the media consumption of participants, providing an overview of media use practices and motives of Pakistani men and women. This chapter has presented the examination of the attitudinal portion of the questionnaire with an aim to present a general picture of Pakistani speakers' attitudes towards the British, American

and Pakistani accents of English. A number of relationships between the attitude scores and social factors were found and discussed using plots. On the whole, the British accent was ranked the highest whereas the Pakistani accent was rated the lowest. The American accent was ranked in the middle. Women rated the British accent higher than men showing their strong liking for the British accent. I also discussed the possible relationship between participants' attitudes towards the three accents of English and media consumption using mixed effects models. The findings suggest that participants' attitudes are conditioned by their media consumption and social factors.

In the next chapter, I shall briefly describe the attitudes and media consumption of 54 selected speakers who took part in the second phase of the research that involved media diary keeping and socio-linguistic interview.

5 Key Sample Analysis

In chapter 4, I analysed the language attitudes and media consumption practices of 407 Pakistani English speakers, based on a questionnaire. Now I begin to focus on speakers in the key sample. As discussed in chapter 3, spoken data was analysed from a subset of the participants, a group I call the 'key sample'. The procedure for selecting these speakers was outlined in section 3.1.1. Before I turn to the analysis of the production data, I focus in this section on the questionnaire responses of those in the key sample, as a subset of the overall responses already presented in the previous chapter. In addition to that, it contains a detailed account of analysis of the diary. The key sample consists of 54 participants (26 men, 28 women).

The chapter is structured as follows. First, information about the key participants is provided in section 5.1 followed by their language attitude results in section 5.2. Their media consumption is discussed in section 5.3, followed by their media diary analysis results in 5.4. The chapter summary is given section 5.5.

5.1 Participants

As already outlined, a total of 407 participants took part in the online survey in phase one of this research. Based on their responses, a subset of them were selected for the second phase of research and invited to take part in the media diary keeping and interview process. In total, 60 participants took part in the media diary and interview phase, but only 54 participants provided their fully recorded media diaries. Participants with incomplete data were excluded from the key sample. Therefore, this chapter will present the attitudinal and media data of 54 participants. Again, as already discussed, all speakers included in the key sample are university

students with English as their second language, and they have spent the majority of their life in Pakistan with no face-to-face international exposure to English. Participants with international exposure to English were not included in the key sample as per the sampling criteria (described in section 3.1.1). Their year of birth ranges between 1992 and 1997.

5.2 Accent rating by key sample speakers

Figure 5.1 presents the overall attitudinal ratings of the three accents in focus in this research. This suggests that both men and women rated British and American accent favourably. Women rated the British accent higher than American and Pakistani accent. Likewise women rated the American accent higher than the Pakistani accent. However, men rated the British accent and American accent in like manner. Also, the Pakistani accent was rated higher by men than women. Similar results was found in the analysis of larger sample containing 407 participants.

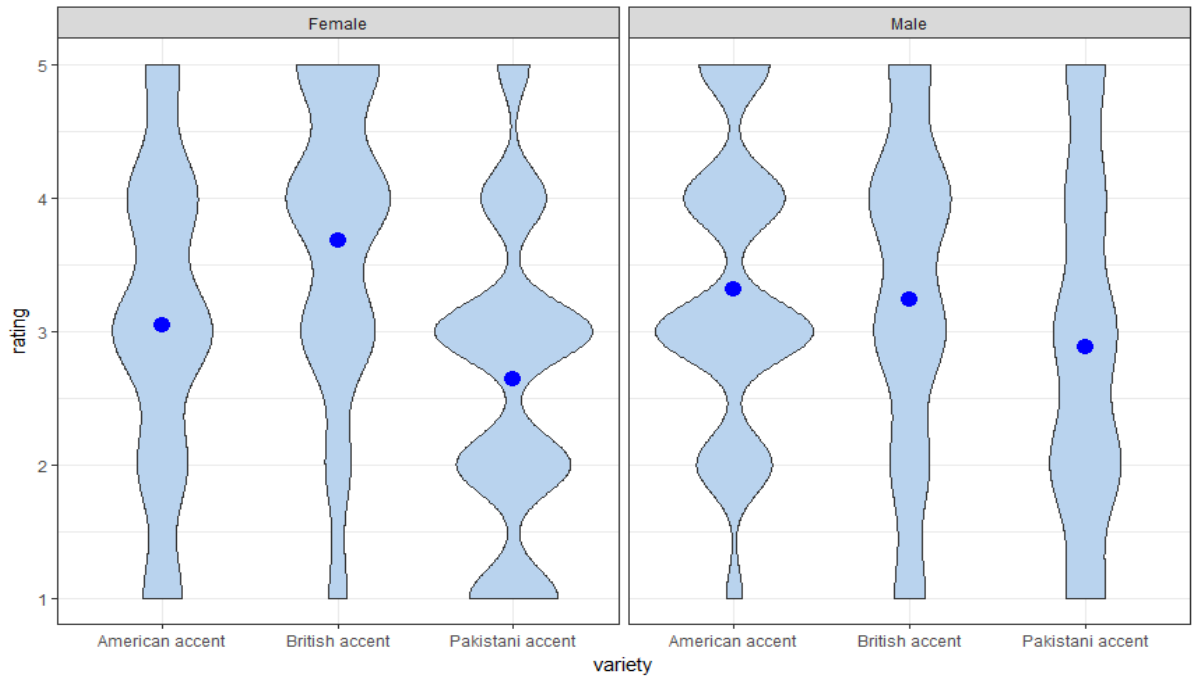

Figure 5.1 Accent rating by key sample men and women

Figure 5.2, shown below, presents the ratings of the British, American and Pakistani accents of English by speakers from four socioeconomic categories: low, lower-mid, higher-mid and high. Low and lower-mid category speakers rated the British accent in the same fashion. However, the American accent received a slightly higher rating from low category speakers compared to lower-mid category speakers. Likewise, lower-mid category speakers rated the Pakistani accent higher than low category speakers. Figure 5.2 also shows that high category speakers rated the British accent much higher than low, lower-mid and higher-mid category speakers. Also, low and high category speakers rated the American accent in the same way. High category speakers rated the British accent the highest, the American accent in the middle and the Pakistani accent the lowest. More or less similar pattern was observed in the analysis of larger sample discussed in the previous chapter.

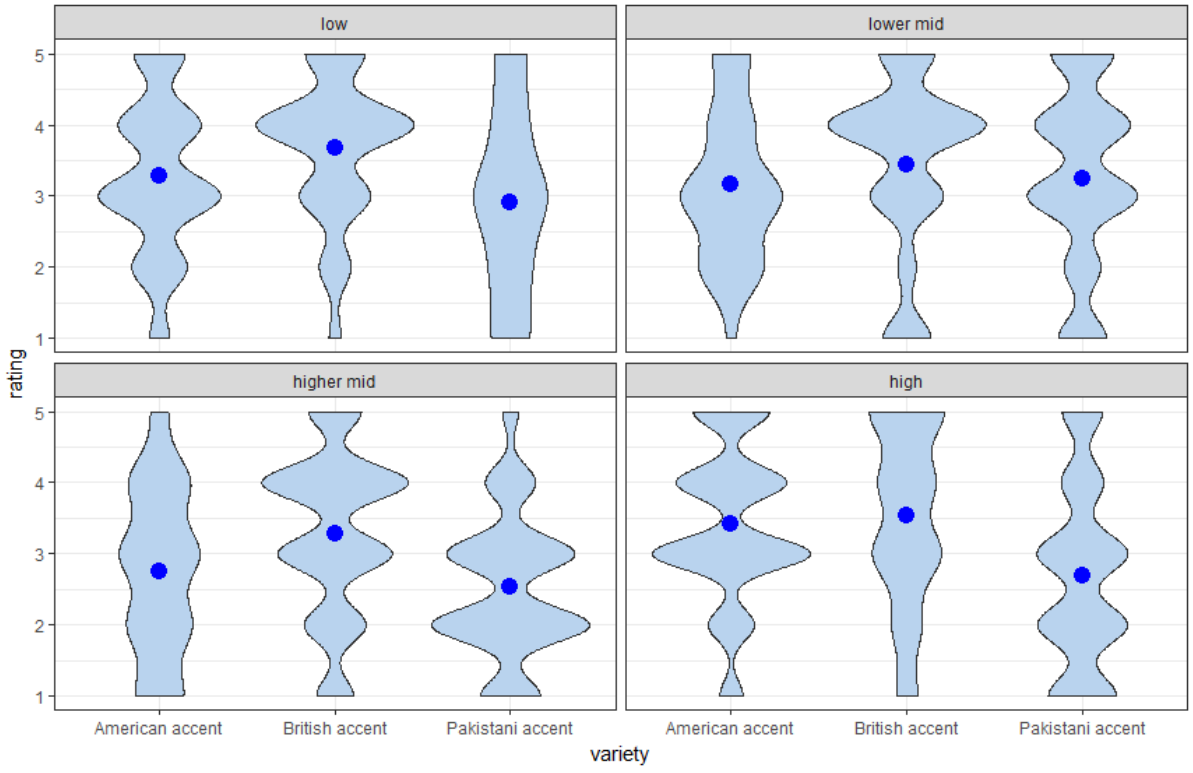

Figure 5.2 Accent variety rating and socioeconomic status

5.2.1 Attitudinal Index Score

As discussed in chapter 3, the Principal Component Analysis was applied to the attitudinal and media section of the questionnaire to get attitudinal and media index scores. PCA was used to reduce the number of factors and calculate an attitudinal index score for each participant towards three accents: British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent. A detailed account of procedures involved in calculating the attitudinal score has already been discussed in chapter 3. PCA reduced the 36 attitude questions into three principal components: UsaAtt (PC1), UkAtt (PC2) and PakAtt (PC3). UsaAtt refers to attitudes towards the American Accent. UkAtt refers to attitudes towards the British accent and PakAtt refers to attitudes towards the Pakistani accent. This information will be used in the multiple regression analysis that I present in chapter 6.

In the next section, I briefly present the media consumption practices of the key sample speakers along with a detailed analysis of the media diary.

5.3 Media Consumption among key sample participants

The procedures and methods employed for analysis of the media section of the questionnaire have already been discussed at length in the preceding chapters (see chapter 3 and 4). The following subsections present the media consumption habits and practices of the participants included in the key sample. The data presented in the following sections describes the weekly media consumption of the key sample as reported in the questionnaire.

Figure 5.3 media access among key sample speakers

Figure 5.3 shows that all the participants included in the key sample have access to media. The media access pattern does not show a lot of variation between men and women. The media access pattern among key sample is more or less the same as found in the media access analysis of larger sample.

5.3.1 Consumption of English Language Media

Key sample speakers were asked to respond to a general section of English language media consumption so as to learn how often the participants' use media in the English language irrespective of origin of media. They responded to the questions using the following options:

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5=Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

How often do you watch/listen the following type of media?

1. News in English language

2. Movies in English language

3. Music in English language

4. TV shows in English language

Table 5.1 presents the consumption of English language media patterns as reported by the participants included in the key sample.

Table 5.1 Consumption of English Language Media by Key participants

English Language Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
News in English Language	2.615385	2.25	2.425926
Movies in English Language	3.807692	2.857143	3.314815
Music in English Language	4.153846	4.75	4.462963
TV Shows in English Language	3.769231	3.178571	3.462963

Table 5.1 shows that the participants included in the key sample consume a considerable amount of English language media with some variations in the consumption of various types of media. For instance, key sample participants reported a consumption of English music which is 4.46 days a week on average. This is considerably higher than other types of English language media included in this category. As we can see, there is not much difference between men and women in the consumption of English music. This shows that English music is quite

popular among both men and women. However, we can see that men reported consumption of English movies for 3.80 days on average which is higher than women. In the case of TV shows, there is no considerable difference between men and women; men watch English TV shows on average 3.76 days a week whereas women watch on average 3.17 days a week. This suggests that English TV shows are equally popular among young men and women in Pakistan. Participants also reported use of English news for 2.42 days a week on average with no significant between men and women.

5.3.2 American Media

Table 5.2 presents the average weekly consumption of different types of American media by the key sample participants.

How often do you watch/listen the following type of American media?

1. American news channels
2. American TV shows
3. American movies
4. American music
5. American sports channels

Table 5.2 Consumption of American Media by Key Sample

American Media	Average Number of Days

	Men	Women	Whole
American News Channels	1.461538	1.607143	1.537037
American TV shows	2.884615	2.5	2.685185
American Movies	3.846154	3.107143	3.462963
American Music	3.115385	3.5	3.314815
American Sports channels	2.115385	1.142857	1.611111

We can see, the most consumed type of American media is American movies with consumption of 3.46 days per week on average. Men reported a slightly higher amount of consumption as compared to women; men have 3.84 days a week on average whereas women have 3.10 days a week on average. Next to movies, American music is the second highest ranking with 3.31 days per week on average with women having reported a higher amount of American music consumption than men. American TV shows are watched by the participants for 2.68 days a week with a little variation between men and women. American sports channels are watched for 1.61 days a week on average with significant variation between men and women. Men reported a consumption of sports channels for 2.11 days a week on average whereas women watch sports channels for 1.14 days a week on average. Generally, men are more interested in sports channels than women are.

5.3.3 British Media

Table 5.3 presents the consumption of British media. We can see, the heaviest consumed type of British media is British music with consumption of 2.88 days per week on average, with some difference between men and women; women listened to music for 3.21 days a week on average whereas men listened to music for 2.53 days a week on average. Women reported higher consumption of music in other categories as well. The type of British media with the second highest consumption is movies with consumption of 2.77 days a week on average, with some variation between men and women. Participants also reported consumption of British news channels for 1.90 days a week on average with considerable difference between men and women.

Table 5.3 Consumption of British Media by Key Sample

British Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
British News Channels	1.653846	2.142857	1.907407
British TV Shows	2.153846	2.357143	2.259259
British Movies	2.538462	3	2.777778
British Music	2.538462	3.214286	2.888889

5.3.4 Pakistani Media

Table 5.4 presents the weekly average consumption of different aspects of Pakistani media as reported by the participants included in the key sample. As we can see from the table below,

the most consumed type of Pakistani media is Pakistani Urdu TV programmes with consumption of 3.70 days a week on average with considerable difference between men and women. Women reported consumption of Urdu programmes for 4.10 days a week on average whereas men watch Urdu programmes for 3.26 days a week on average. This shows that Urdu programmes are more popular among women than men. Likewise participants watch Pakistani English news channel and Pakistani English talk shows for 2.24 and 1.68 days a week on average, respectively, with noticeable variation between men and women. As we can see from the table, all aspects of Pakistani media are consumed more by women than men. This shows that the women included in the key sample use all aspects of Pakistani media more than men.

Table 5.4 Consumption of Pakistani Media by Key sample

Pakistani Media	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
Pakistani English News Channel	1.923077	2.535714	2.240741
Pakistani English Talk shows	1.269231	2.071429	1.685185
Pakistani English Radio channels	1.461538	2.642857	2.074074
Pakistan Urdu TV programmes	3.269231	4.107143	3.703704
Pakistani Movies	1.346154	1.892857	1.62963

5.3.5 Indian Media

Table 5.5 presents the use of Indian media by the key sample participants. The participants included in the key sample watch Hindi movies for 2.25 days a week on average with a small

difference between men and women. Men watch Hindi movies for 2.42 days a week on average whereas women watch for 2.10 days a week on average. An important thing to note here that women reported higher consumption of Hindi plays than men. In other types of Indian media, men and women show a small variation. For instance, women watch Indian Hindi plays for 1.46 days a week on average whereas men watch for 0.84 days a week on average. Indian news channels are watched for 0.46 days a week on average with a small variation between men and women.

Table 5.5 Consumption of Indian Media by key sample

Indian Media Consumption	Average Number of Days		
	Men	Women	Whole
Indian Movies	2.423077	2.107143	2.259259
Indian TV shows	1.115385	0.75	0.9259259
Indian Plays	0.8461538	1.464286	1.166667
Indian News Channels	0.6538462	0.2857143	0.462963

5.3.6 Comparison of different types of media consumption

Figure 5.4 shows the comparison of various forms of English, British, American, Pakistani and Indian media among key sample speakers. The plots for the news section show that English news channels are watched the most and Indian news the least. The consumption of British and

Pakistani channels is similar whereas the consumption of American news channels is lower than English, British and Pakistani.

In the case of music, the consumption of English music (all types of English Varieties) is the highest whereas the consumption of British music is the least. American music is consumed less than English music and more than British music.

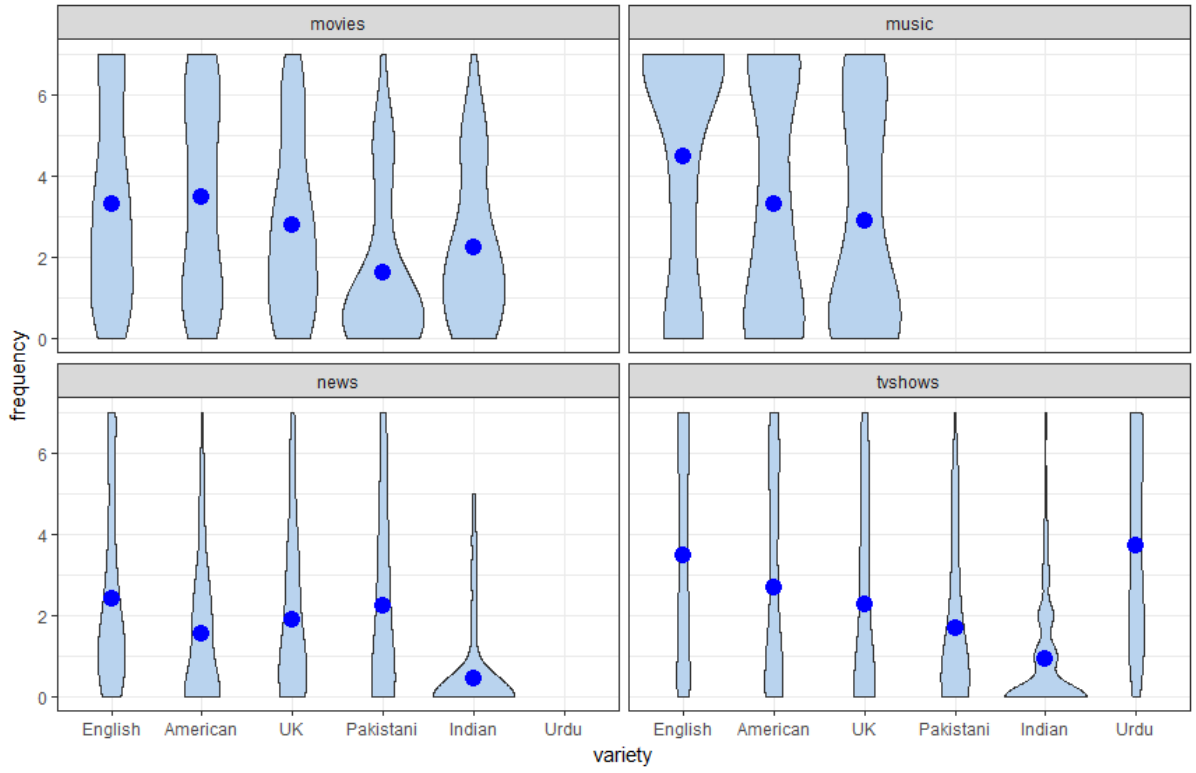

Figure 5.4 Media consumption by key sample speakers

In the case of TV shows, speakers watch Urdu TV shows the most and Indian TV shows the least. The consumption of British talk shows is higher than Pakistani TV shows. The consumption of American TV shows is lower than English TV shows but higher than other Pakistani, British and Indian shows.

In the case of movies, the consumption of British movies is slightly higher than Indian movies and the variation in responses ranges from 0 to 7. However, the amount of consumption of English and American moves is the same and the variation in responses ranges from 0 to 7 on the frequency scale. The plot shows that American and English movies are watched the most and Pakistani movies the least.

If we compare the consumption of various forms within the media type, we see that in American media consumption, American movies, American TV shows and American music seem to be more popular among the speakers. However, in British media consumption, speakers have reported higher use of British music and British movies with comparatively less use of British news channels and British TV shows. Finally, in Pakistani media, Pakistani Urdu shows are very popular. In the case of Indian media, Indian movies seem to be popular among key sample speakers.

5.3.7 Media Consumption for English Language Learning

This section presents the responses of key sample speakers to a range of questions asked to understand how they use media for English language learning purposes. The tables given below present the media consumption of British and American media for language learning purposes as reported by the speakers included in the key sample.

5.3.7.1 Consumption of American Media for Language learning

Table 5.6 presents the use of different types of American media. American movies, American plays and American music are mostly consumed by the key sample participants with the purpose of learning English. Other types of American media are comparatively less consumed by the participants. Women seem to use higher amounts of all types of American media for

language learning purposes compared to men. For instance, women watch American movies for language learning purposes for 3.10 days a week on average whereas men watch American movies for 2.96 days a week on average. Likewise, women reported higher consumption of American music for language learning purposes than that of men. We can see a similar pattern in the use of other types of American media by both men and women.

Table 5.6 Use of American Media Programmes for English Language by Key sample

American Media for Language Learning	**Average Number of Days**		
	Men	Women	Whole
Q39.American Language Learning Audio Series	0.6538462	1	0.8333333
Q40.American Language Learning videos	1.153846	1.785714	1.481481
Q41.American Talk Shows	1.384615	1.964286	1.685185
Q42.American Movies	2.961538	3.107143	3.037037
Q43.American Music	2.461538	3.214286	2.851852
Q44.American Plays	1.346154	1.571429	1.462963
Q45.American Accent Training Audio/Video	0.9615385	0.8214286	0.7714988
Q46.Speeches of Important American Personalities	1.538462	1.785714	1.395577

Figure 5.5 below presents the amount of media consumption and the range of variation in the consumption of American media across speakers included in the key sample. American music and American movies are mostly used by the participants for English Language purposes.

Participants also use substantial amount of American Talk shows, American plays and speech of important personalities for English language learning purposes. Again, there is a lot of variation across the speakers that ranges from 0 to 7.

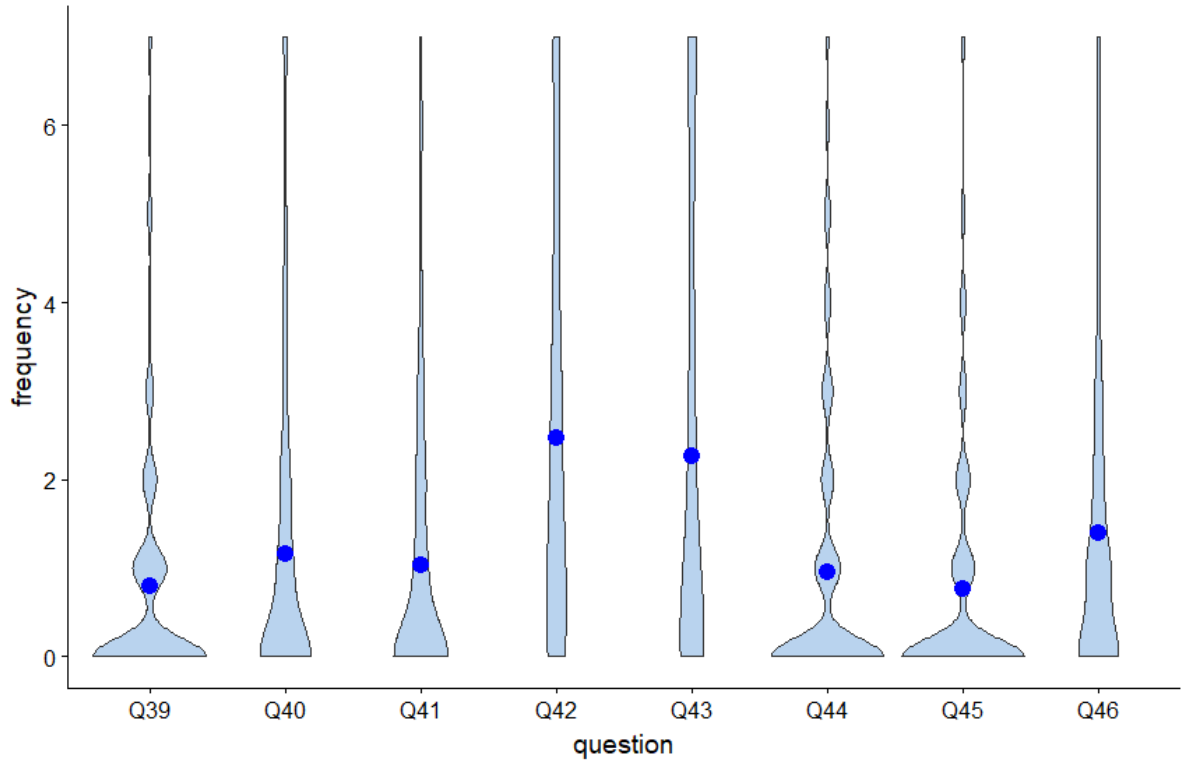

Figure 5.5 Use of American Media by Key participants for English Language

5.3.7.2 Consumption of British Media for English Language Learning

Like American media, participants included in the key sample also reported variation in the use of different forms of British media for language learning purposes. Participants watch British movies for 2.42 days a week on average with small variation between men and women. Likewise, participants watch British shows for 2.14 days a week on average with some

variation between men and women. Participants also reported the use of other types of British media including British language series and speeches of important British personalities for language learning with small differences between men and women. Women included in the key sample reported higher consumption of all types of British media as compared to men for language learning.

Table 5.7 Use of British Media Programmes for English Language by key sample

British Media for Language Learning	**Average Number of Days**		
	Men	Women	Whole
Q47.British English Language series like BBC English	1.192308	1.571429	1.388889
Q48.British Plays	1.038462	1.071429	1.055556
Q49.British Shows	1.961538	2.321429	2.148148
Q50.British Movies	2.230769	2.607143	2.425926
Q51.Speeches of important British Personalities	1.346154	1.357143	1.351852
Q52.British Accent Training Audio/Video	0.9615385	1.142857	1.055556

Figure 5.6 below presents the amount of media consumption by the key sample and the range of variability across the speakers as reported by the key sample speakers. The use of British movies for language learning purposes has been reported to be the highest with a lot of variation across the speakers that ranges from 0 to 7 days a week. Likewise, British shows are used by the speakers for the purpose of English language learning with variation across the speakers.

The amount of consumption of other types of British media and the range of variation across the speakers is almost same.

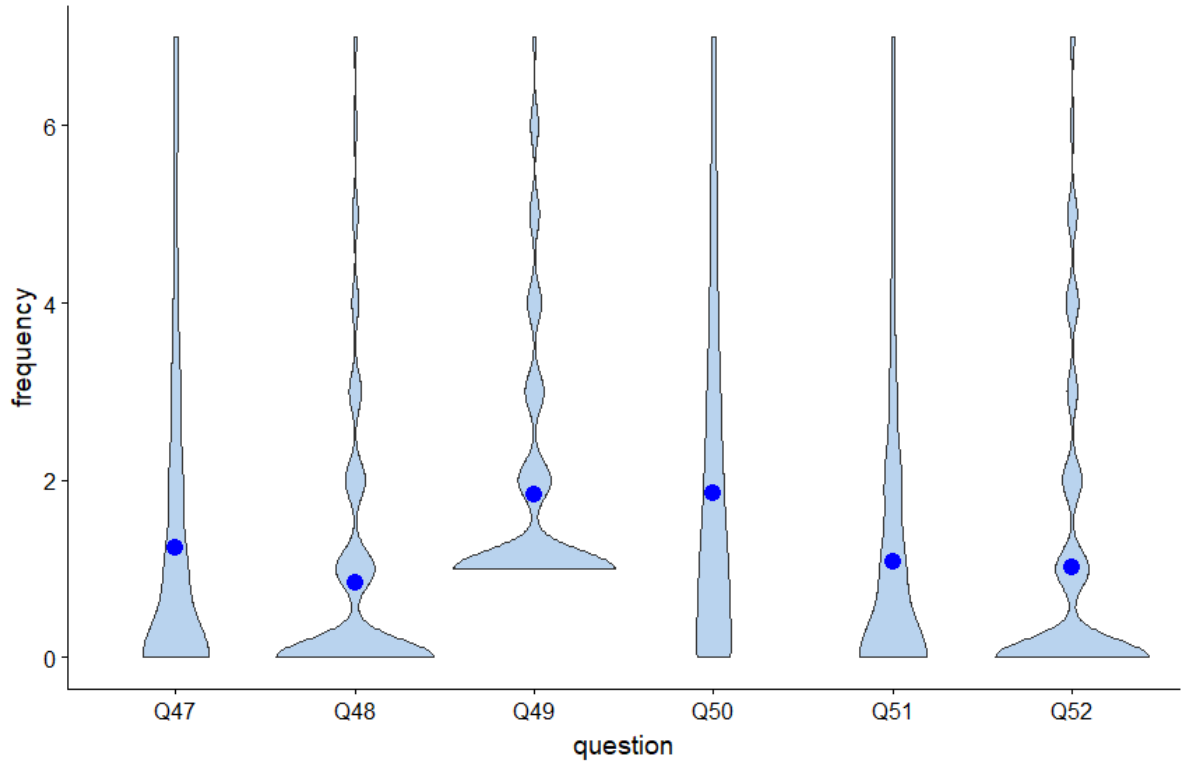

Figure 5.6 Use of British Media by Key participants for English Language

5.3.8 Media Consumption Index score

As discussed in chapter 3, PCA was applied to the media portion of the questionnaire to calculate a media index scores for each participant. PCA produced four principal components: medEngLangLearn, medEngLangEnt, medEngLangSoc and medPakInd which refer to English media for English language learning, English media for entertainment, English media for social interaction and Pakistani-Indian media respectively.

5.3.8.1 MedEngLangLearn

This media index score represents speakers' consumption of American, British and Pakistani English media for the use of language learning. This includes the following types of English language media:

1. British English Language series like BBC English
2. British Accent Training Audio/Video
3. Speeches of important British personalities
4. American language learning series with Audio
5. American Accent Training Audio/Video
6. Speeches of Important American personalities
7. British Plays/Shows
8. American Language learning Videos
9. British News Channels like BBC etc.
10. British talk shows
11. Pakistani English News Channels
12. American Talk shows
13. Pakistani English Talk shows

5.3.8.2 MedEngLangEnt

This represents speaker's media index score for English media that they consume for entertainment purposes. This includes American, British and Pakistani media programmes. This media index score represents the use of following types of media:

1. American Music

2. American Movies
3. American TV shows
4. British movies
5. British Music
6. British TV shows
7. American Music
8. American Movies
9. British Movies
10. American sports channels
11. American News Channels like CNN etc.
12. American plays
13. Pakistani English Radio channels

5.3.8.3 MedEngLangSoc

This media index score shows the consumption of different types of English media for cultural and social interaction. The following motives for the use of English language media are included in this media index score:

1. To learn how Americans speak in different situations
2. To learn about American life style
3. To know how Americans use words in their interaction
4. To improve your accent
5. To improve your pronunciation
6. To learn how British people interact
7. To learn British accent

8. To learn about British Life style
9. To know how Americans interact socially
10. To find out what is going on in the world

5.3.8.4 MedPakInd

MedPakInd refers to Pakistani an Indian media which is mainly in the Urdu and Hindi languages and represents the use of Urdu and Hindi media programmes. The flowing types of Pakistani and Indian media are included in this:

1. Indian TV shows
2. Indian movies
3. Indian TV plays/dramas
4. Pakistani movies
5. Indian news channels
6. Urdu TV programmes

I will use these media index score in the mixed effects regression analysis of linguistic variable /t/ and /r/ that I present in chapter 6.

In the next section, I present a detailed analysis of media diary which I used to collect the weekly media consumption of key sample speakers.

5.4 Media Diary Analysis

As discussed in chapter 3, a media diary was used to collect the weekly media consumption of the participants included in the key sample**.** The purpose of the media diary was to collect information about participants' weekly media consumption. A detailed discussion of the media diary as a data collection tool and its method of analysis has already been provided in chapter 3. This section of the chapter provides a detailed account of media diary results.

5.4.1 Media diary results

Figure 5.7 below presents the weekly media engagement of the participants included in the key sample. The average media consumption of key sample speakers is 500-1000 minutes per week. These total minutes of consumption include all types of media such as American media, British media, Pakistani media, Indian media and other types of media. The media diary was further analysed to see the amount of consumption of different types of media.

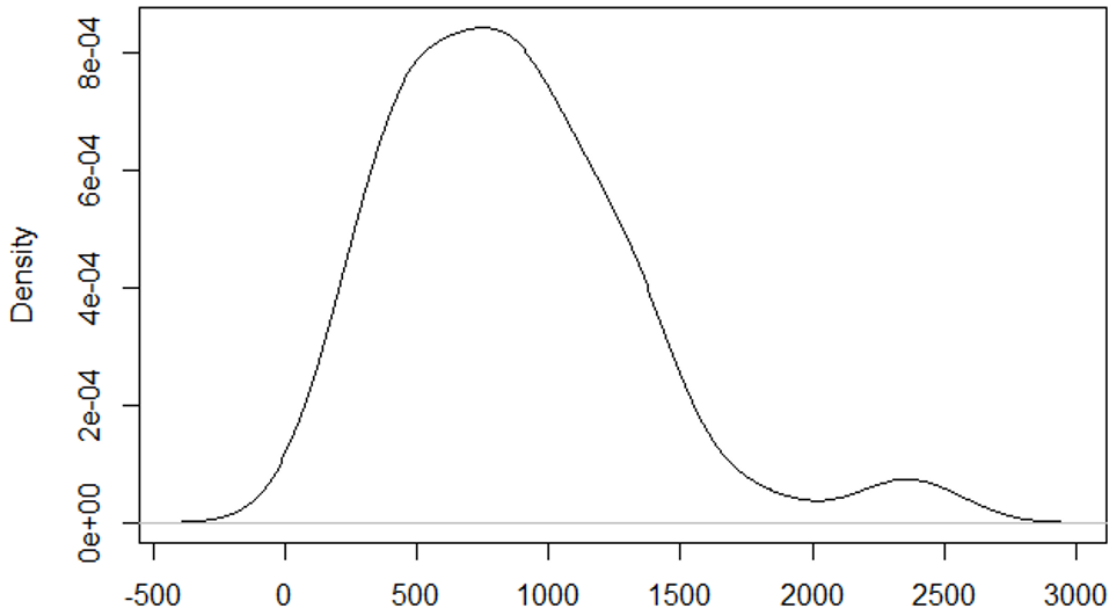

Figure 5.7 Weekly Media Consumption Recorded by Media Diary

Figure 5.8 below presents the breakdown of media engagement and it suggests that participants engage with English language media a lot. Speakers also have a considerable amount of engagement with Urdu and Hindi media. Engagement with other types of media like Pashtu, Punjabi and Persian language media is much smaller, so I do not comment on that further.

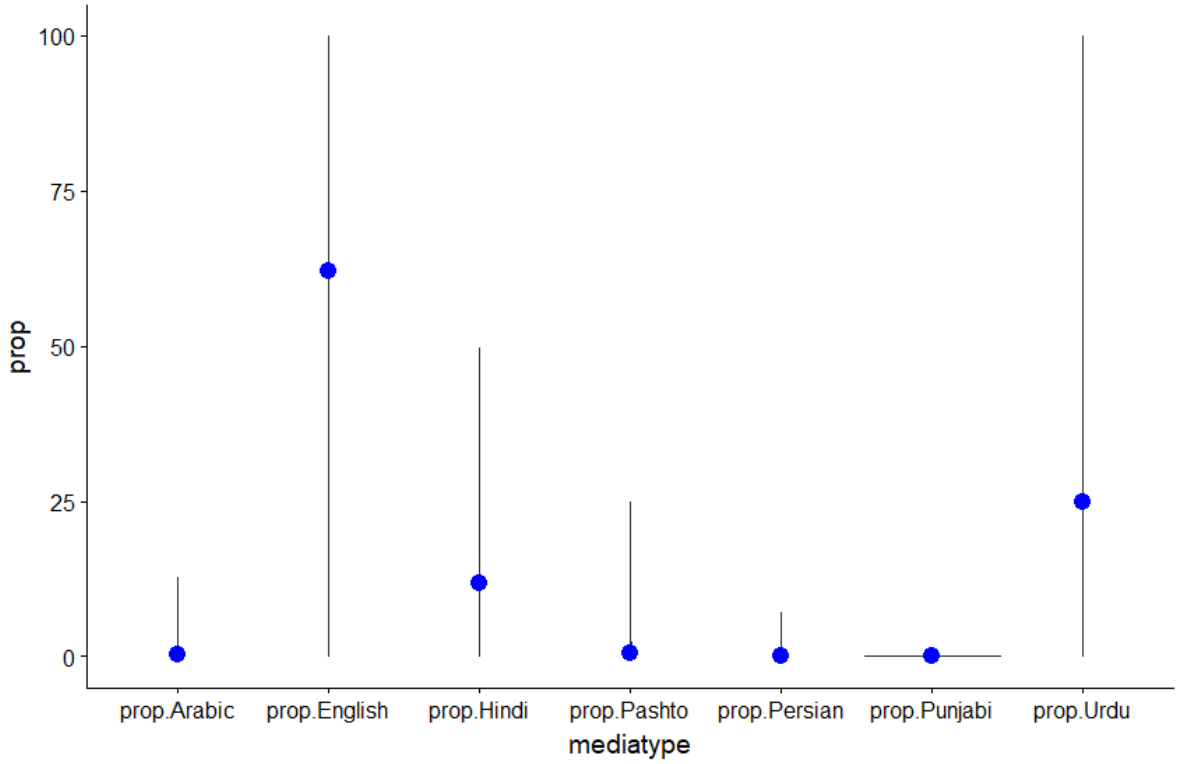

Figure 5.8 Types of Media Consumption recorded by Media Diary

Figure 5.9 below presents the consumption of English language media reported in the media diary. The further breakdown of media engagement of English language suggests that speakers included in the key sample engage with American media and British media the most. The media engagement of Pakistani English media, Indian English media, and other media is insignificant.

The consumption of American media is higher than British media. One plausible reason for this could be that most of the English media programmes are generally produced in America.

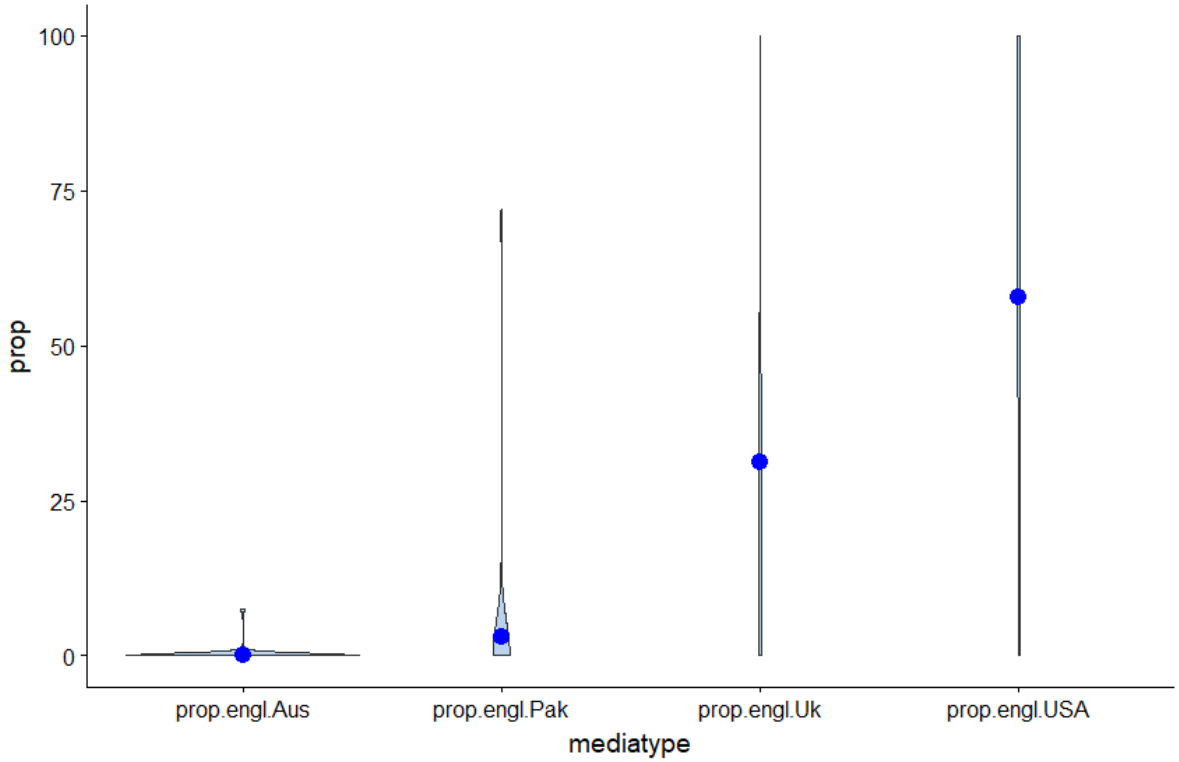

Figure 5.9 Types of English Media Recorded by Media Diary

In the following sections, I briefly talk about the terms based on media diary results that I shall be frequently using in the next chapters.

5.4.1.1 Prop.all.English

Prop.all.English refers to the proportion of English media in speakers' total media consumption. It includes all types of English media like American, British, Pakistani and Indian, to contrast with non-English media. In the later discussion, it will simply be labelled as English media.

5.4.1.2 Prop.all.USA

Prop.all.USA refers to the proportion of American media in the total media consumption of the participants. This includes media programmes that speakers reported as American.

5.4.1.3 Prop.all.Uk

Prop.all.uk refers to the proportion of British media in speakers' total reported media consumption. It includes all the programmes that speakers mentioned as British. In discussions later in this thesis, it will simply be termed as British media.

5.4.1.4 Prop.all.pak

Prop.all.pak refers to the proportion of Pakistani media in the total media consumption of the participants. Pakistani media programmes are generally in Urdu. Prop.all.pak will simply be written as Pakistani media in discussions later in this thesis.

5.4.1.5 Media Engagement and Social factors

In order to determine the relationship between media engagement and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status, linear regression analyses were performed. In the first analysis, total media consumption (all types of media) was included as a dependent variable with gender and socioeconomic status as independent variables.

Table 5.8 presents the results of the regression analysis. The coefficient of socioeconomic status is significant with a p value of 0.0216. The coefficient of gender is approaching significance with a p value of 0.0665. This suggests that men consume more media than women do. Likewise, speakers with higher socioeconomic status consume more media overall.

Table 5.8 Total media consumption and social factors

Coefficients:				
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	370.510	182.443	2.031	0.0475 *
sexMale	228.280	121.753	1.875	0.0665 .
soc.status.index	23.695	9.995	2.371	0.0216 *

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘’ 1				

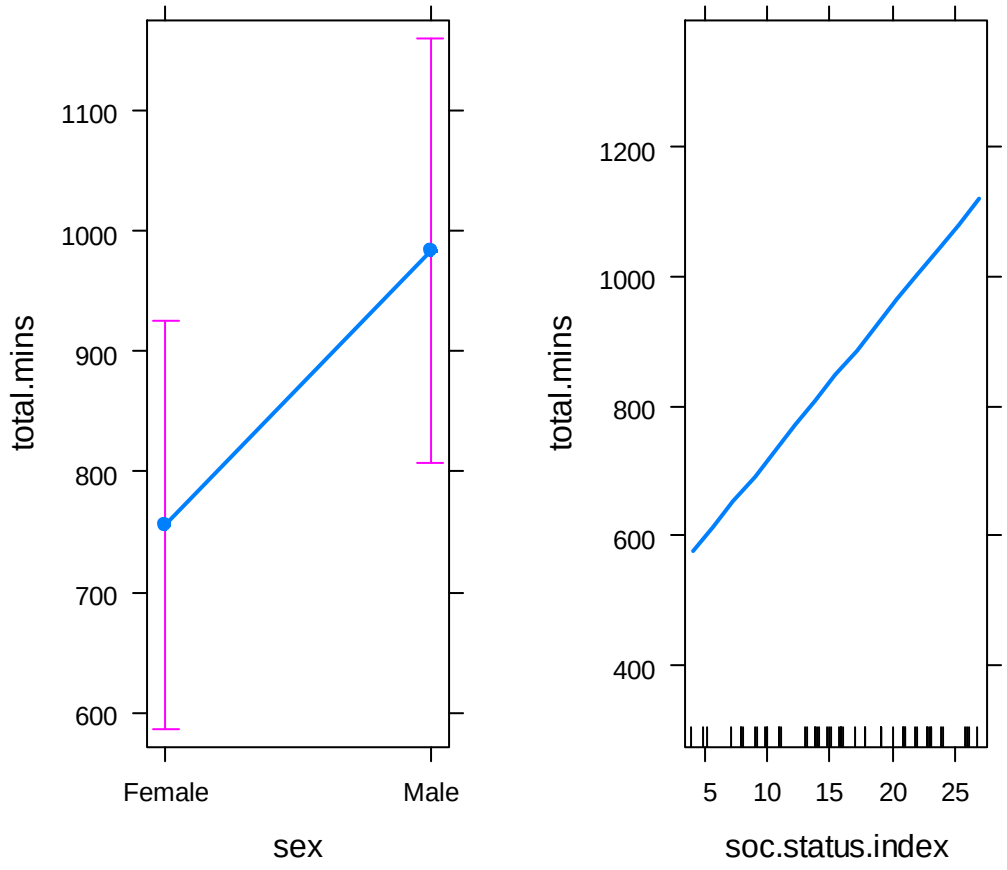

Figure 5.10 Social Factors and Media consumption

Figure 5.10 plots the results of the model. The plot for gender shows that the consumption of media is higher in men than women. The plot for socioeconomic status shows that speakers with higher socioeconomic status use more media.

Another regression analysis was performed to see the relationship between consumption of English media and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. English media was included as a dependent variable with gender and socioeconomic status as independent variables. Table 5.9 presents the results of the regression model. The coefficients of gender and socioeconomic status are significant with p value of 0.0478 and 8.5e-07, respectively. This suggests that men consume a higher amounts of English media. Similarly, speakers with higher socioeconomic status index have higher media consumption of English media.

Table 5.9 English media consumption and social factors

Coefficients:				
	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept)	12.1150	8.8613	1.367	0.1776
sexMale	11.9940	5.9135	2.028	0.0478 *
soc.status.index	2.7205	0.4855	5.604	8.5e-07 ***

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘’ 1				

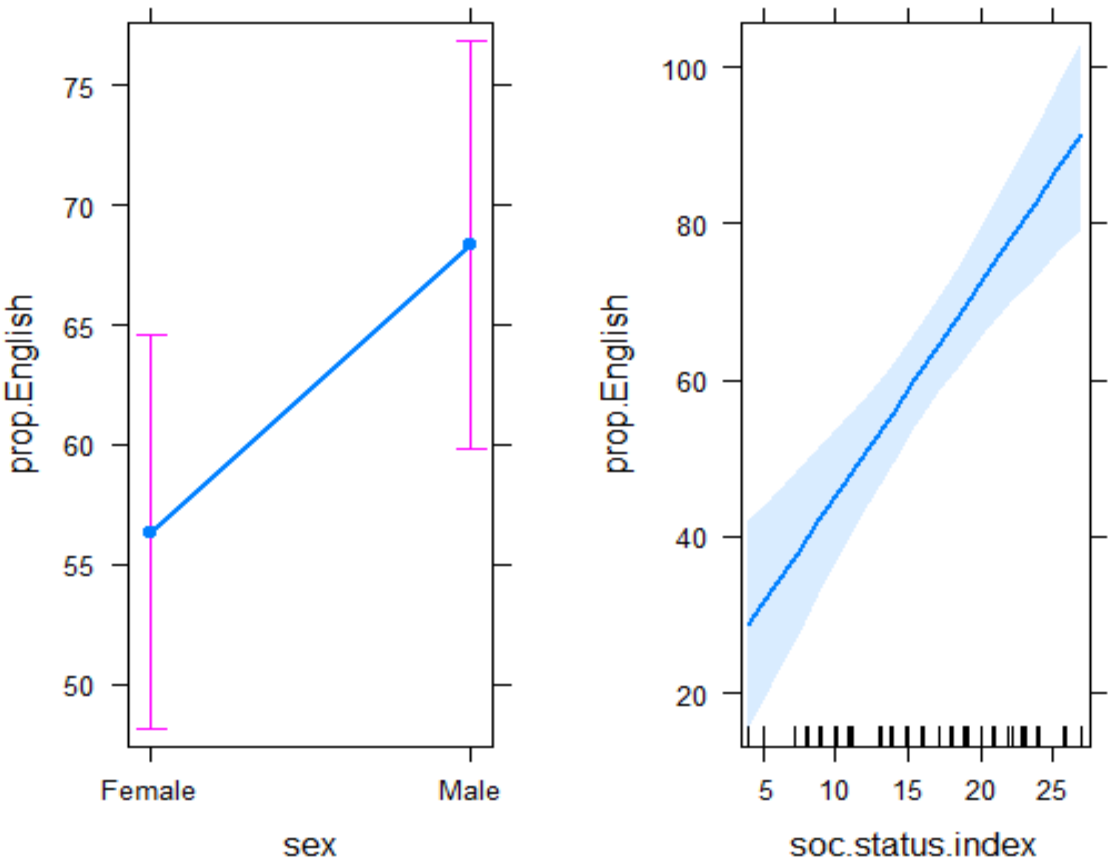

Figure 5.11 English media consumption and social factors

Figure 5.11 plots the relationship between social factors and media consumption of English media. The plot for gender shows that men use more English media. Likewise, the plot for socioeconomic index shows that speakers with higher socioeconomic status tend to use a higher amount of English media.

Men reported a higher amount of weekly media consumption. Since most of the media consumption reported in the media diary is English, there may be cultural and social reasons for which women consume less media than men. In countries like Pakistan, women don't get equal opportunities to those of men, for social, cultural and religious reasons (see Jejeebhoy &

Sathar, 2001; Roomi & Parrott, 2008; Sathar et al., 1988; Weiss, 1994). Likewise, participants with higher socioeconomic status consume higher amounts of media, probably because participants with higher socioeconomic status can have better access to satellite TV, internet, cable TV and online streaming services. In other words, proper access to different forms of media could have a strong impact on the amount and type of media consumption of the participants.

The results of the key sample questionnaire responses show that English, American media, British media and Pakistani Urdu media programmes are consumed the most by key sample speakers. Similar results were obtained from the analysis of questionnaire responses from 407 participants. This suggests that the key sample speakers are a more or less representative sample of the bigger data containing 407 participants. Likewise, the results of media diary show that American and British media programmes are the highest consumed media types among key sample speakers. This shows that the media consumption patterns reported in the media diary are, to a great extent, comparable to the media consumption patterns reported in the questionnaire.

5.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have provided a brief overview of key sample speakers' attitudes and media consumption, with detailed analysis of the media diary.

I have also outlined in this chapter the relationship between media consumption reported in the media diary and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. The results show that speakers with higher socioeconomic status consume more English media and that men tend to use more media than women do. I have also explained some of the terms related to media that

I shall be using in the next chapter to investigate the relationship between speech production and the factors of media consumption, attitudes, gender and socioeconomic status.

In the next chapter, I present the analysis of two linguistic features, /t/ and /r/, and examine how their production is conditioned by social and linguistic factors.

6 Consonant Analysis

Previous chapters provided analysis and discussion related to attitudes and media consumption. This chapter presents the analysis of linguistic production data and how linguistic production is conditioned by the attitudes, media consumption and sociodemographic characteristics of the participants. This chapter has two sections that deal with the socio-phonetic study of two linguistic variables, /t/ and /r/, respectively.

As discussed in the previous two chapters, Pakistani speakers of English have shown a range of variation in both attitudes towards different accents of English and media engagement. This variation in attitudes towards different accents of English, and media engagement is hypothesised to play a role in the linguistic behaviour of the participants. For instance, it is hypothesised that speakers with positive attitudes towards the American or British accents will have a higher proportion of American or British features , respectively, in their speech whereas speakers with positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent, would exhibit a lower proportion of those features. Similarly, it is hypothesised that speakers with higher consumption of English language media (mainly American and British media) will have a higher proportion of American and British features in their speech, whereas speakers with lower consumption of English language media would exhibit a lower proportion of those features and higher proportion of Pakistani accent features.

In this chapter, I produce a detailed account of selected linguistic features and their correlation with factors of attitudes, media consumption and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. A detailed discussion of the rationale for the selection of these features has already been

provided in chapter 2. First section of this chapter contains detailed account of /t/ analysis followed by analysis of /r/ in section 2.

6.1 Analysis of /t/

The study examines three variants of stop /t/, the tap [ɾ], as commonly found in general American English, the alveolar [t], the typical realisation of /t/ in RP, and retroflex [ʈ], commonly attested in Pakistani English.

This part of the chapter investigates the use of RP, GA and PE variants of /t/ in Pakistani English speech to answer the question given below.

6.1.1 Research Questions for /t/

The primary research question this section deals with is how the production of /t/ is conditioned by the speakers' attitudes, their media engagement and their gender and socioeconomic status. This section will address the following question:

1. What is the nature of the correlation between speakers' realisation of /t/ and their attitudes towards three accents of English, their media consumption, and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status?

6.1.2 Methodology

6.1.2.1 Auditory Analysis: Coding

There were 2839 /t/ tokens in total extracted from COPE. I used auditory method of analysis for the coding. Each token was carefully listened to in order to determine which of the three realizations, discussed above, it fits. Tokens which were perceived to be somewhat aspirated

were coded as /t/. Tokens in which the tongue sounded like it was tapping against the alveolar ridge were coded as tap [ɾ]. Likewise, tokens in which the tongue was perceived as rising towards the palate and then retracting towards the back were coded as retroflex [ʈ]. This criterion was followed consistently in the whole coding system to represent the impressionistically perceived type of production.

To check the trustworthiness and quality of the coding, inter rated reliability method was used. My supervisor listened to 10% of the tokens to ensure that the coding procedures are followed consistently and accurately.

6.1.2.2 Excluded Tokens

All the tokens were listened to and checked during the auditory analysis and coding to ensure that they met the criteria. All tokens not fulfilling the criteria were deleted from the csv file. These tokens were discarded for three main reasons. First, most of the discarded tokens were not English words. For instance, many of the discarded tokens were Urdu. Second, some of the tokens were not properly transcribed in ELAN, meaning they had to be discarded. Third, some of the tokens were not fully pronounced. These include elided /t/ tokens which were not in sufficient number to be considered for inclusion in the study. For instance, there were 26 word tokens for t-dropping and 2 tokens of reduced /t/. In this way, 2739 tokens qualified to be part of the final analysis. Out these tokens, 1514 were produced by male speakers and 1225 by female speakers.

6.1.2.3 Statistical Method

After the coding of the data, binominal mixed effect regression (Baayen, Davidson, & Bates, 2008) was performed using the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015) in R (R Development Core

Team 2015) with the bobyqa optimizer. Logistics mixed effect regression modelling is appropriate for data in which the dependent variable is binary in nature. Like all other regression procedures, logistic regression is also a predictive analysis because it explains the nature of the relationship between a dependent variable and an independent variable or variables. There are a few prerequisites for the use of logistic analysis. First, logistic analysis is only suitable if the dependent variable is binary. For instance, in my data, I made the dependent variables binary before running the test by putting the three dependent variables into two categories (e.g. /t / vs /not t/). All the alveolar and retroflex /t/s together were placed in 'not.ɾ' category and all the flaps [ɾ]s were placed in 'ɾ' category. 'Not.ɾ' represents retroflex and alveolar /t/s, whereas '[ɾ]' represents all tap [ɾ]s. The same process was followed for alveolar and retroflex variants of /t/. I used three different models for the analysis of three variants.

The independent variables of gender, socioeconomic status, ukAtt, usaAtt, PakAtt, medEngLangLearn, medEngLangSoc, medEngLangEnt, medPakInd, prop.all.English, prop.all.USA, prop.all.uk, prop.all.pak and position (stressed vs unstressed) were included in the model and excluded step by step to reach a final model with significant scores through the process of stepwise regression. The fixed effects which were non-significant were excluded from the model. The models were compared to choose the better model using ANOVA and the significantly better model was kept. ANOVA provides Akaike information criterion (AIC) value (Akaike, 1974) which is based on statistical deviance. The model with less AIC value is generally a better model. The speaker and the word were used as a random effects in these models (see Chapter 3 for more discussion on mixed effects models).

6.1.3 Results

As discussed earlier that three variants of /t/ are included in this study and other variants like t-dropping were excluded because of insignificant number of tokens. These three variants are retroflex, flap and alveolar /t/. I used three models for the analysis of these variants each model describing the realisation of one type of /t/variant. The first model (see Table 6.2) presents the analysis of flap/tap [ɾ]and the second (Table 6.3) presents the results of alveolar [t], and the third presents (Table 6.4) the results of retroflex [ʈ].

Table 6.1 Realisation of three variants of /t/

Type of /t/ Variant	Number of tokens	Percentage
Tap	377	13.76%
Retroflex	1148	41.91%
Alveolar	1214	44.32%
Total	2739	

Out of 2739 tokens, 377 tokens (13.76%) were produced as tap [ɾ]s. There were a total of 1148 (41.91%) retroflex tokens. The highest number of tokens were realized as alveolar [t]s (1214; 44.32%).

6.1.3.1 Intervocalic /t/ as Tap /ɾ/

For the analysis of tap [ɾ], logistic mixed effects modelling was used to see the correlation between the fixed effects and the likelihood of flapping in the realisation of intervocalic /t/. A number of factors were modelled as fixed effects. These were gender, socioeconomic status, ukAtt, usaAtt, PakAtt, medEngLangLearn, medEngLangSoc, medEngLangEnt, medPakInd

prop.all.English, prop.all.USA, prop.all.uk, prop.all.pak and position. Speaker and word were included as random effects so as to reduce the possibility of individual bias. Fixed effects reaching the significance threshold were retained in the final model whereas non-significant factors were excluded from the models using stepwise elimination method. ANOVA was run to compare the AIC value of the models to decide the better fit model. The formula used for the final model, containing both fixed and random effects, is given below.

tap ~ soc.status.index+stressed +medEngLangLearn+ prop.all.USA+(1|ID)+(1|Target.orthography)

Table 6.2 presents the fixed effects retained in the final model for tap /ɾ/. The analysis shows that medEngLangLearn and prop.all.USA are significant with p values of 0.0294 and 0.0103 respectively.

Table 6.2 Model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects that predict the likelihood of tap /t/

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)	-12.40505	1.77740	-6.979	2.97e-12 ***
soc.status.index	0.15934	0.09529	1.672	0.0945 .
Stressedunstressed	1.85882	1.02851	1.807	0.0707 .
medEngLangLearn	0.78104	0.35852	2.179	0.0294 *
prop.all.USA	0.04799	0.01870	2.566	0.0103 *

Significance codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘’ 1

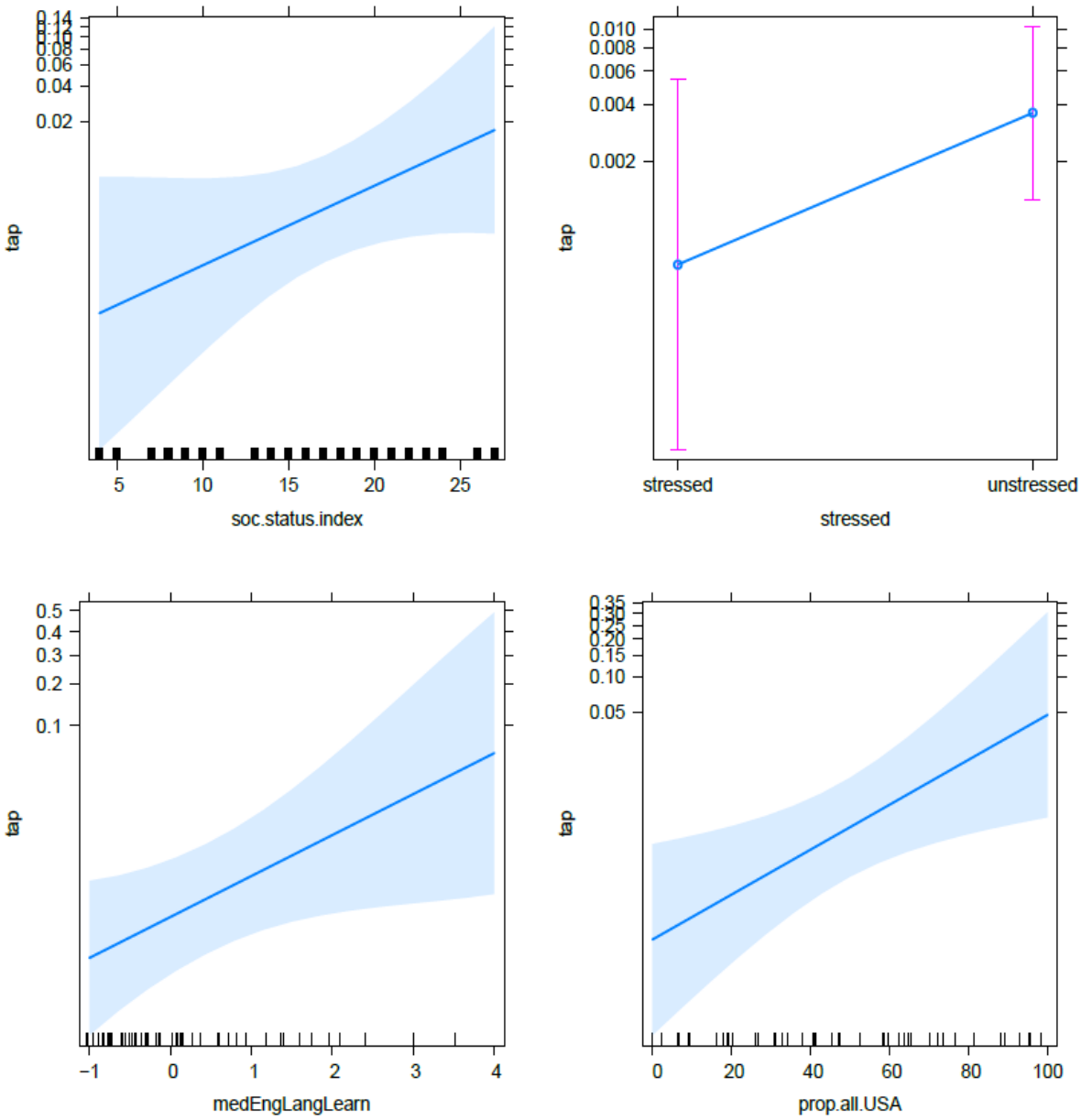

Figure 6.1 plot of the model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects that predict the likelihood of tapping

Figure 6.1 plots the results of the model. The top left plot shows that speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to produce taps in intervocalic positions. The top right plot for stressed vs unstressed position shows that the likelihood of /t/ being realised as tap [ɾ] is higher in unstressed position than in stressed position. Similarly, the bottom left plot for medEngLangLearn shows that participants with higher consumption of medEngLangLearn

(English media for language learning) are more likely to produce tap [ɾ]. Finally, the bottom right plot for the relationship between tapping and Prop.all.USA shows that participants who consume a higher amount of American media are more likely to produce taps.

6.1.3.2 Intervocalic /t/ as Alveolar

A mixed effect logistic model was also used for the analysis of alveolar [t] to see the likelihood of /t/ being realised as alveolar in relation to a number of fixed effects. The factors included in the first model (tap) were also included in the second model (alveolar). Speaker and word were used as random effects. The factors reaching the significance threshold were retained in the final model. ANOVA was used to compare the two models and the significantly better fit model was kept as a final model. The syntax of the model with fixed effects and random effects is as follows:

```
alveolar ~ medEngLangEnt+medPakInd+ prop.all.Pak + (1|ID)+(1|Target.orthography)
```

Table 6.3 presents the results of the model. The coefficient for medEngLangEnt is significant with a p value of 0.000614. The findings also suggest that the coefficients of Pak-India media medPakInd and prop.all.pak are significant with p-values of 0.009150 and 0.000671, respectively, but the nature of the correlation is negative.

Table 6.3 Model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects that predict the likelihood of Alveolar /t/

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)	0.102964	0.307150	0.335	0.737456
medEngLangEnt	0.627375	0.183167	3.425	0.000614 ***
medPakInd	-0.477226	0.183099	-2.606	0.009150 **

prop.all.Pak	-0.025136	0.007391	-3.401	0.000671 ***

Significance codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1

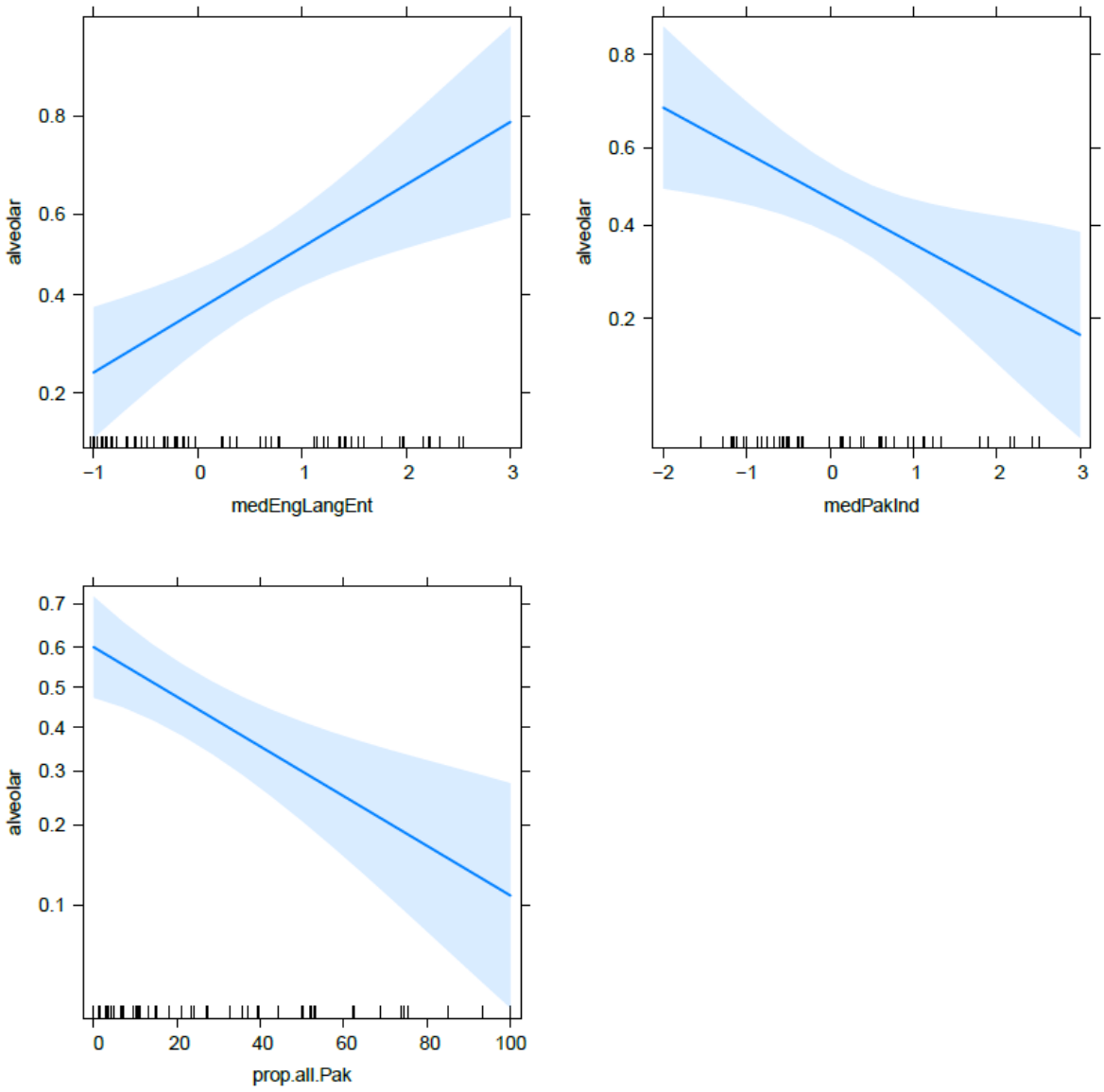

Figure 6.2 plot of the model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects that predict the likelihood of Alveolar /t/

Figure 6.2 charts the results of the regression model and shows that the likelihood of alveolar [t] is higher in speakers with higher scores of medEngLangEnt (top left plot). The top right plot shows the relationship between alveolar [t] articulation and medPakInd is negative meaning speakers who produce more alveolar [t]s consume less amount of medPakInd. In other words,

speakers with higher consumption of Pakistani and Indian media are less likely to produce alveolar [t]. Likewise, the plot for the prop.all.pak and alveolar [t] indicates a negative relationship between the two. The negative relationship suggests that speakers with a higher proportion of Pakistani media in their media consumption are less likely to produce alveolar [t].

6.1.3.3 Intervocalic /t/ as Retroflex

A mixed effects logistic model was used for determining the likelihood of retroflex [ʈ] in relation to the fixed effects discussed above. In this model the same factors used above were included with speaker and word as a random effects. The fixed effects that reached the significance threshold were retained in the model, as shown in table 6.4. The decision about the final model was made after comparing the models using ANOVA. The following formula was used as the final model.

retroflex~soc.status.index+pakAtt+prop.all.Pak+prop.all.USA+(1|ID)+(1|Target.orthography)

The findings suggest that the coefficient for socioeconomic status is negatively correlated with a p value of 0.000604. Similarly, the effect of prop.all.USA is also negative with a p value of 0.037635. However, the coefficients for PakAtt and prop.all.pak are positively significant with p values of 0.004055 and 0.042465 respectively.

Table 6.4 Results of the regression model for retroflex t

Fixed effects	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)	2.217386	0.727957	3.046	0.002319 **
soc.status.index	-0.134496	0.039212	-3.430	0.000604 ***
PakAtt	0.484715	0.168664	2.874	0.004055 **

prop.all.Pak	0.018010	0.008877	2.029	0.042465 *
prop.all.USA	-0.019918	0.009582	-2.079	0.037635 *

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Significance codes:  0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘’ 1
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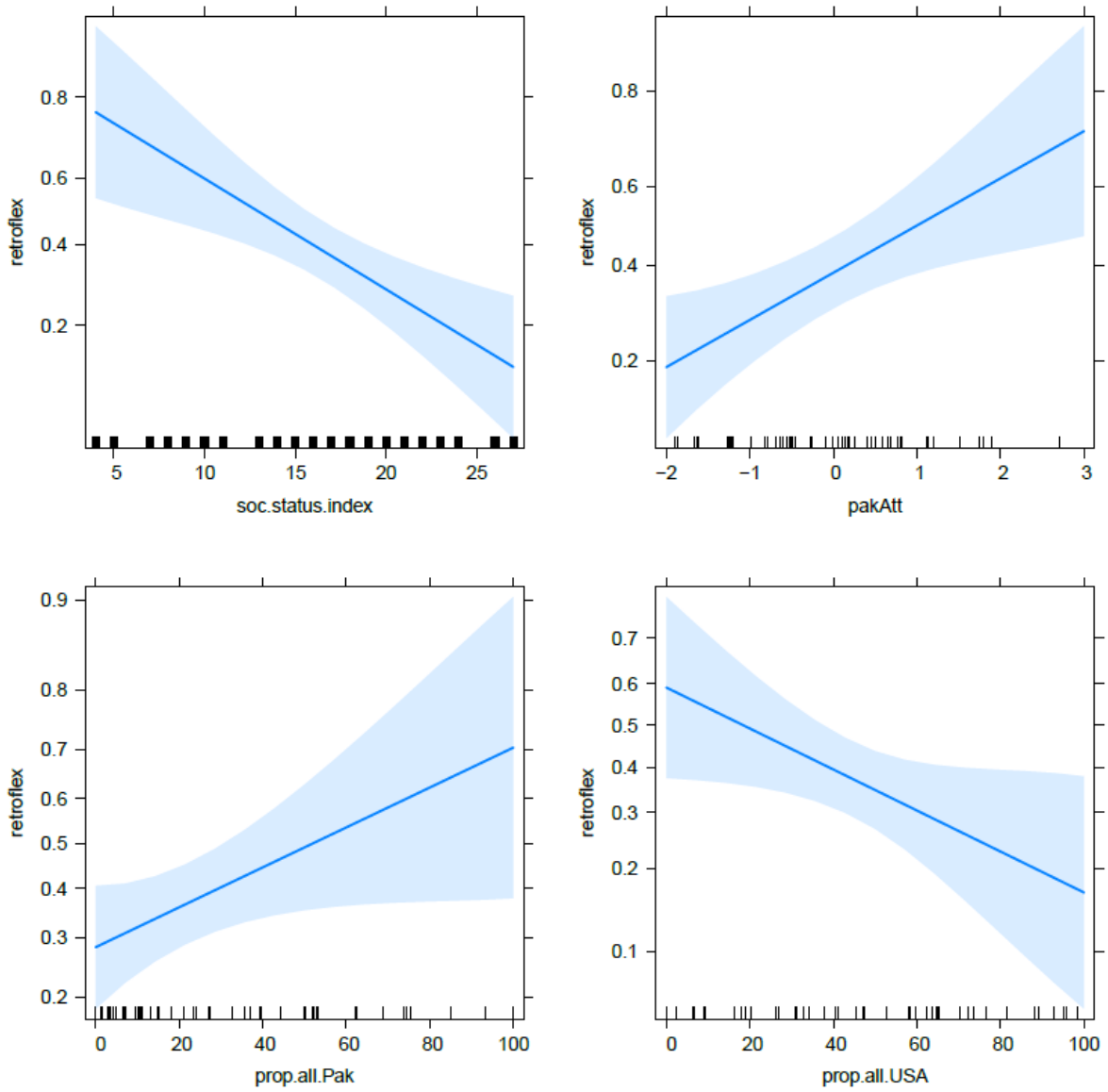

Figure 6.3 Plots showing results for retroflex t

Figure 6.3 presents the results of the model for retroflex [ʈ]. The top left plot showing the relationship between socioeconomic status and retroflex [ʈ] indicates that the speakers with higher socioeconomic are less likely to produce retroflex [ʈ]. In other words, the likelihood of retroflex [ʈ] is higher in speakers with lower socioeconomic status. Similarly, the plot (bottom

right) showing the relationship between prop.all.USA and retroflex [ʈ] indicates that speakers with higher consumption of American media are less likely to produce retroflex [ʈ]. This means that the likelihood of [ʈ] articulation is higher in speakers with lower consumption of American media.

The plot (top right) showing the correlation between PakAtt and retroflex [ʈ] suggests that there is a positive correlation between the speaker's attitudes towards the Pakistani accent and retroflex [ʈ]. The speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent of English are more likely to produce retroflex [ʈ]. Similarly, the plot (bottom left) for prop.all.pak and retroflex [ʈ] shows a positive correlation between the two. This means that speakers with higher consumption of Pakistani media are more likely to produce retroflex [ʈ].

6.2 Analysis of /r/

In this section of the thesis, I investigate the extent of rhoticity and non-rhoticity in Pakistani English speech and examine the correlation between rhoticity and the fixed effects of attitudes, media consumption, linguistic environment and the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. I examine whether speakers of Pakistani English omit /r/ as in RP, realise approximant /r/ as in American English or produce a trill /r/ in postvocalic positions. I hypothesize that the realisation of /r/ is conditioned by attitudes towards accents of English and media consumption of English media including British and American media along with linguistic and social factors.

6.2.1 Allophonic variations in the realisation of /r/

A great degree of variation may be observed in the articulation of /r/ across various varieties of English. One of the most common allophones is the post-alveolar approximant in which the tip of the tongues reaches the alveolar region but does not make any contact with the roof of the mouth. Second type of /r/ is tap in which tongue makes a rapid contact with the alveolar ridge, as in Pakistan and India (Wells, 1982) . Finally, trill /r/ in which the tip of the tongue makes rapid contact with the alveolar ridge multiple times is used in the varieties of English in the subcontinent such as India and Pakistan (Wells, 1982).

6.2.2 Research Question for /r/

How are rhoticity and /r/ realisation conditioned by language attitudes, media consumption and social and linguistic factors?

6.2.3 Methodology

6.2.3.1 Coding and Phonetic Analysis of /r/

In total 4131 tokens of NURSE (2419 tokens) and FORCE (1712 tokens) lexical sets were obtained from the Corpus of Pakistani English. Based on the impressionistic method, the tokens were coded as null, approximant or trill. Tokens which do not include perceptible rhotic sounds were coded as 'null'. The tokens in which the tongue was perceived to be rising to the alveolar region but did not touch the roof of the mouth were coded as 'approximant'. The tokens in which tongue was perceived to be tapping the alveolar ridge were coded as 'trill'. The tokens which were misaligned, not properly pronounced and misspelled (not properly spelled in transcription) were excluded from the analysis. In total 3897 NURSE and FORCE tokens qualified to be part of the analysis.

Table 6.5 Distribution of Variants of /r/

Type of /r/	Number of Tokens	Percentage
Approximant	1389	35.6428
Trill	1752	44.9576
Null/Zero	756	19.3995
Total Tokens	3897	

Out of 3897 tokens, 1389 tokens (35.64%) were produced as approximant (see table 6.5). There was a total of 756 (44.95%) null realisations. The highest number of tokens were realized as trill (1752; 44.95%). After coding the tokens, a mixed effects logistic model was run to determine the correlation between the realisation of /r/ and speakers' language attitudes, media engagement and social factors.

6.2.3.2 Statistical Method

Before running the regression analysis, each variant of /r/ was categorised into binary categories, such as 'approximant' versus 'not approximant' or 'trill' versus 'non trill' in which the former represents all the variants except approximant whereas 'approximant' represents all the approximant tokens but shows the absence of other /r/ variants. Similarly, approximant and trill tokens were combined together to create a category called rhotic vs non-rhotic. The rhotic category shows the presence of approximant and trill tokens and absence of null tokens. The fixed effects of media consumption, attitudes, linguistic environment and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status were included as fixed effects with speaker and word (target orthography) as random effects. The fixed effects reaching significance threshold were retained in the final model and others were excluded using stepwise regression. The best fitting model was decided by comparing the models using ANOVA. The model with lower AIC value was retained as a better model. (See chapter 3 for more discussion on statistical analysis)

6.2.4 Results

As discussed earlier, three variants of /r/ are included in this study. The study focuses on approximant /r/ like in general American English, trill /r/ like in Pakistani English and null/absence of /r/ like in RP. In the first step, approximant and trill were combined together to produce the rhotic category and remaining null/zero tokens were termed as non-rhotic. There were 3141 rhotic tokens and 756 non-rhotic tokens. Regression analysis using mixed effects model was run to see how rhotic and non-rhotic behaviour is conditioned by the speakers' media consumption, attitudes, linguistic environment and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status.

6.2.4.1 Rhoticity in Pakistani English

For the rhoticity model, ukAtt, usaAtt, PakAtt, medEngLangLearn, medEngLangSoc, medEngLangEnt, medPakInd, prop.all.English, prop.all.USA, prop.all.uk, prop.all.pak, gender, socioeconomic status and linguistic environment were added as fixed effects whereas speaker and word were added as random effects. The significant fixed effects were retained and non-significant effects were excluded from the model using stepwise regression. The models were compared using ANOVA and the model with lower AIC value was kept as better model. The formula for the final model is given below.

rhotic~environment*(soc.status.index+ukAtt+pakAtt+prop.all.Uk+prop.all.USA)+sex+(1|ID) +(1|Target.orthography)

Table 6.6 presents the results of the regression model. The coefficients of environmentprecons, ukAtt, PakAtt, prop.all.UK, Prop.all.USA and gender are significant with p values of 1.84e-09, 0.000194, 0.015217, 9.51e-05, 0.007798 and 0.047637 respectively. In case of ukAtt and PakAtt, the value is negative which shows reverse relationship. The interaction of environmentprecons and socioeconomic status is significant with a p value of 0.042192 and the direction is negative. Likewise, the interaction of environmentprecons and ukAtt is significant with p value of 1.57e-08 and shows positive correlation. In like manner, the interaction of environmentprecons and PakAtt are significant with a p value of 0.077472. The interaction of environmentprecons with prop.all.uk is also significant with a p value of 0.000367 and the direction of relation is opposite. Finally, interaction of environmentprecons with Prop.all.USA is negatively correlated with a p value of 0.000204.

Table 6.6 Rhotic behaviour and social and linguistic factors

Fixed effects:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)	
(Intercept)	-6.277915	0.859445	-7.305	2.78e-13	***
environmentprecons	4.598737	0.764968	6.012	1.84e-09	***
soc.status.index	0.045123	0.042107	1.072	0.283893	
ukAtt	-0.697451	0.187162	-3.726	0.000194	***
pakAtt	-0.414109	0.170614	-2.427	0.015217	*
prop.all.Uk	0.047625	0.012203	3.903	9.51e-05	***
prop.all.USA	0.026998	0.010147	2.661	0.007798	**
sexMale	0.578659	0.292164	1.981	0.047637	*
environmentprecons:soc.status	-0.066050	0.032511	-2.032	0.042192	*
environmentprecons:ukAtt	0.796209	0.140818	5.654	1.57e-08	***
environmentprecons:pakAtt	0.227390	0.128793	1.766	0.077472	.
environmentprecons:prop.all.Uk	-0.034748	0.009753	-3.563	0.000367	***
environmentprecons:prop.all.USA	-0.030316	0.008162	-3.714	0.000204	***

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1					

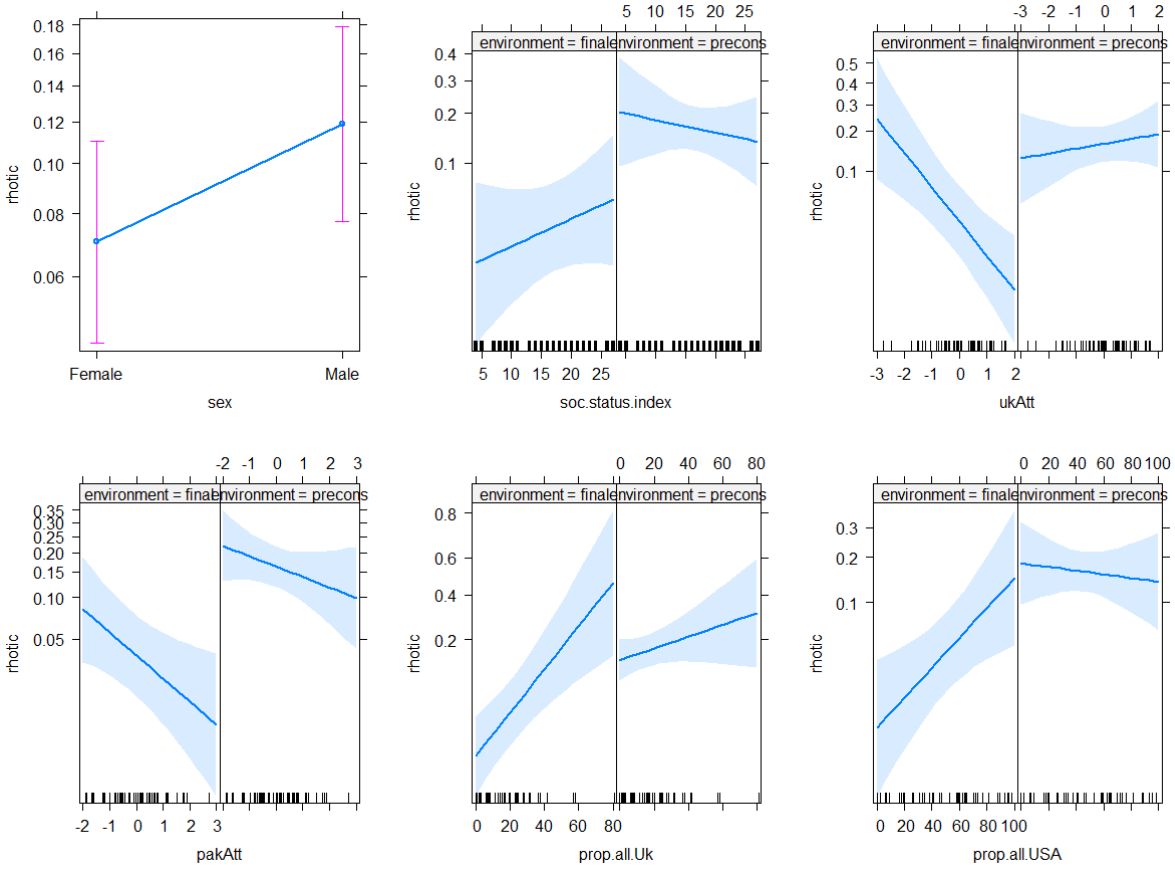

Figure 6.4 plot of the model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects and interaction effects that predict the likelihood of rhotic behaviour

Figure 6.4 presents the plots for the model. The plot (top left) showing the relationship between and gender and rhoticity indicates that women are less rhotic than men. Other plots show the relationship between social and linguistic factors and rhoticity. The plot (top middle) for the interaction between socioeconomic status and environment suggests that speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to be rhotic in final position. It also shows that the pre-consonantal environment is more rhotic overall. Also, the probability of rhotic behaviour is lower in pre-consonantal contexts in speakers with higher socioeconomic status.

The plot (top right) for the interaction of ukAtt and linguistic environment shows that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the British accent are more likely to be less rhotic in the final position. The plot also shows that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the British accent are more likely to be non-rhotic in the final position.

The plot (bottom left) for the interaction of PakAtt (attitudes towards Pakistani accent) and environment suggests that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent are likely to be less rhotic in both final and pre-consonantal positions. The plot (bottom middle) for the interaction of prop.all.uk and linguistic environment suggests that speakers with a higher amount of British media consumption are more likely to be rhotic in final position than pre-consonantal contexts. The plot (bottom right) showing interaction of prop.all.USA and linguistic environment indicates that speakers with higher consumption of prop.all.USA (American media) are more likely to be rhotic in the final position. The plot also shows that the probability of rhotic behaviour is lower in pre-consonantal contexts in speakers with higher score of prop.all.USA.

6.2.4.2 Approximant or Trill

For the analysis of approximant and trill, logistic mixed effects model was run to the see the correlation between the fixed effects and the likelihood of /r/ being realised as trill in post-vocalic positions. Before running the regression analysis, all the non-rhotic tokens were excluded from the list. A number of factors were modelled in as fixed effects: ukAtt, usaAtt, PakAtt, medEngLangLearn, medEngLangSoc, medEngLangEnt, medPakInd, prop.all.English, prop.all.USA, prop.all.uk, prop.all.pak, gender, socioeconomic status and linguistic environment. Speaker and word were used as random effects so as to reduce the possibility of individual bias. ANOVA was run to compare the models and the model with lower AIC value

was kept as better fit model. Table 6.7 presents the significant fixed effects and their interactions. The formula for the final model is given below.

Variant~environment*(ukAtt+pakAtt+medEngLangLearn+medPakInd+prop.all.Uk)+soc.status.index+prop.all.Pak+(1|ID)+(1|Target.orthography)

The findings presented in table 6.7 suggest that the coefficient of environmentprecons is significant with a p value of 1.90e-06 and indicates negative relationship. This shows that the probability of /r/ as trill is lower in the pre-consonantal contexts than in the final positions. Similarly, ukAtt is also significant with p value of 0.024848 and direction is opposite. This shows that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the British accent are less likely to produce trill. PakAtt is also significant with p value of 0.000154 and shows positive relationship between PakAtt and realisation of postvocalic /r/ as trill. This shows that probability of postvocalic /r/ as trill is higher in speakers with more positive attitudes towards Pakistani accent (PakAtt).

The coefficient for medEngLangLearn is approaching significance with a p value of 0.057559 and shows a negative relationship. This suggests that probability of postvocalic /r/ being realised as trill is lower in speakers with higher consumption of medEngLangLearn. In other words, speakers with higher score of medEngLangLearn are more likely to produce approximant /r/. MedPakInd is also significant with a p value of 0.001714. This indicates that the probability of trill realisation is higher in speakers with higher consumption of Pak-India media. The coefficient of socioeconomic status is also significant with a p value of 1.79e-05. The negative relation shows that speakers with higher socioeconomic status are less likely to produce trill. Prop.all.pak is also significant with a p value of 2.82e-05 which means the

probability of trill realisations is higher in speakers with higher consumption of Pakistani media.

The interactions of social factors with linguistic environment are also significant. For instance, the interaction of environmentprecons and UkAtt is significant with a p value of 0.000219. This means the probability of /r/ as trill is lower in the pre-consonantal contexts in speakers with more positive attitudes towards British accent. Likewise, the interaction of environmentprecons with PakAtt is also significant with a p value of 0.002124. This shows that speakers with more positive attitudes towards Pakistani accent are more likely to produce postvocalic /r/ as trill in the final position than in the pre-consonantal contexts.

The interaction of environment with medEngLangLearn is also significant with a p value of 0.000475. This shows that the probability of postvocalic /r/ realization as trill is lower in the final position in speakers with higher consumption of medEngLangLearn. The interaction of environmentprecons with medPakInd is significant with p value of 0.002399. This shows that likelihood of /r/ realisation as trill is higher in the final position than in pre-consonantal contexts in speakers with higher consumption of medPakInd. Similarly, the interaction of environmentprecons with prop.all.uk is significant with a p value of 0.032772 and the direction is positive. This shows that the probability of trill realisation is higher in pre-consonantal position in speakers with higher consumption of British media.

Table 6.7 Relationship between realisation of /r/ as approximant or Trill and linguistic and social factors

Fixed effects:					
	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)	
(Intercept)	6.418227	1.564448	4.103	4.09e-05	***
environmentprecons	-2.773731	0.582258	-4.764	1.90e-06	***
ukAtt	-0.798810	0.356015	-2.244	0.024848	*

pakAtt	1.240052	0.327644	3.785	0.000154	***
medEngLangLearn	-0.736443	0.387797	-1.899	0.057559	.
medPakInd	0.942190	0.410291	2.296	0.021653	*
prop.all.Uk	-0.001421	0.019049	-0.075	0.940515	
soc.status.index	-0.285477	0.066556	-4.289	1.79e-05	***
prop.all.Pak	0.063599	0.015188	4.187	2.82e-05	***
environmentprecons:ukAtt	0.705829	0.190989	3.696	0.000219	***
environmentprecons:pakAtt	-0.580689	0.189005	-3.072	0.002124	**
environmentprecons:medEngLangLearn	0.771255	0.220721	3.494	0.000475	***
environmentprecons:medPakInd	-0.577076	0.190087	-3.036	0.002399	**
environmentprecons:prop.all.Uk	0.021691	0.010160	2.135	0.032772	*

Signif. codes: 0 ‘***’ 0.001 ‘**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’ 0.1 ‘ ’ 1					

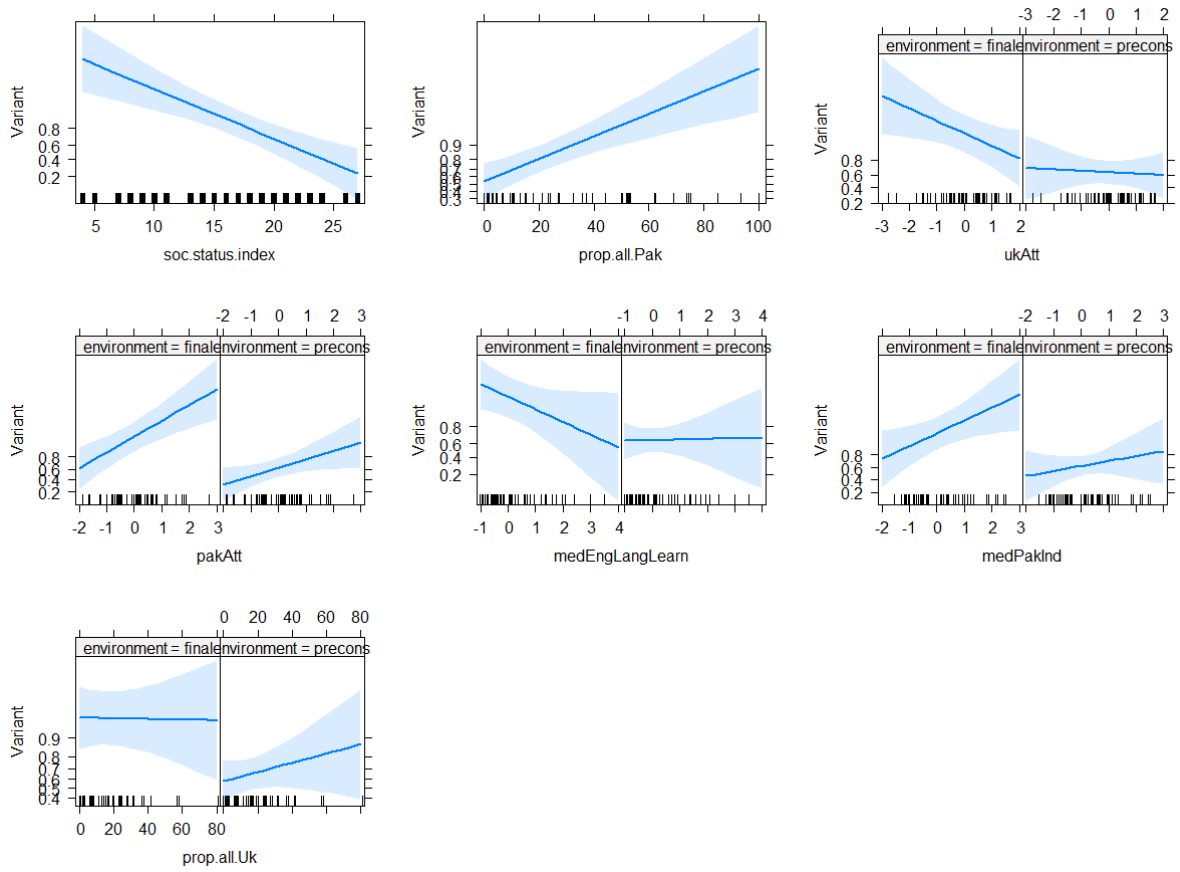

Figure 6.5 plot of the model output of a mixed effect logistic regression model showing the main effects and interaction effects that predict the likelihood of a speaker using the trill variant over the approximant variant of /r/

Figure 6.5 presents plots showing the relationship between social and linguistic factors and articulation of /r/ as trill. The plot (top left) showing relationship between socioeconomic status and articulation of trill or approximant indicates that speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to produce an approximant /r/ and are less likely to produce a trill. In other words, the likelihood of trill /r/ is lower in speakers with higher socioeconomic status. The plot (top middle) for prop.all.pak shows that speakers with higher consumption of Pakistani media are more likely to produce a trill. The plot (top right) showing the interaction of ukAtt with environment indicates that the likelihood of /r/ as trill is higher in the final position in speakers with higher scores of ukAtt (attitudes towards British accent). This means speakers with

positive attitudes towards the British accent are less likely to produce /r/ as a trill in final position.

The plot (centre left) for the interaction of PakAtt with environment indicates that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent are more likely to produce a trill in final position than in the pre-consonantal contexts. In other words, the likelihood of /r/ as a trill in pre-consonantal position is lower than in final position in speakers with higher score of PakAtt. On the other hand, plot (centre middle) for the interaction for medEngLangLearn with environmentprecons suggests that the likelihood of /r/ as a trill is lower in speakers with higher consumption of medEngLangLearn in the final position. This means that a trill realisation is less likely for speakers who consume more media specifically for the purpose of English language learning. The plot (centre right) for the interaction of medPakInd with environmentprecons indicates that speakers with higher consumption of medPakInd (Pakistani and Indian media) are more likely to produce trill in the final position. The plot (bottom) for the interaction of prop.all.uk and environment shows that speakers with higher consumption of prop.all.uk (British media) also produce trill more in the pre-consonantal position whereas the final position does not show any significant relationship.

6.3 Discussion

As seen in the results above, the fixed effects of attitudes, media consumption and sociodemographic factors influence the realization of /t/ and /r/ in different ways. As discussed in chapter 2, it was expected that there would be a range of variation in the production of /t/ in Pakistani speakers, and the focus here is on the tap, retroflex, and alveolar realizations. The probability of intervocalic /t/ realisation as tap were higher in speakers with higher score of English language media and American media. Likewise, the probability of alveolar [t] is higher

in speakers with higher score of English media for entertainment and lower score of Pakistani media and Pak-India media. Similarly, likelihood of retroflex [ʈ] is higher in speakers with higher score of Pakistani media and Pak-India media and lower score of American media. Also, the probability of retroflex [ʈ] is higher in speakers with more positive attitudes towards a Pakistani accent. The results also show that speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to produce tap [ɾ] but less likely to produce retroflex [ʈ]. Speakers with higher socioeconomic status tend to use prestigious forms more in their speech than speakers from lower socioeconomic status. Labov (1990, p. 220) argues that 'for a prestige marker, the higher a speaker's socioeconomic status, the higher the frequency of use'. On the other hand, speakers with lower socioeconomic status tend to use non-standard forms (Labov, 1990). Moreover, Pakistani speakers from higher socioeconomic status reported higher consumption of English (American and British) media (see media diary results in chapter 5). That is most likely why speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more likely to produce tap [ɾ] but less likely to produce retroflex [ʈ].

Likewise, the analysis of /r/ shows that there are there are mainly three realisations of postvocalic /r/ in the Pakistani accent of English: approximant, null realization and trill. Rhoticity is a variable feature in Pakistani English having both rhotic and non-rhotic features. This finding is in agreement with suggestions made in previous research (see Mahboob & Ahmar, 2008; Rahman, 1991). The rhotic behaviour of second language speakers is conditioned by the social factors of gender and socioeconomic status, media consumption, attitudes and linguistic environment. Women are less rhotic than men. As discussed above, it is possible that women in Pakistani society are more status conscious and use more standard forms (See Labov, 1990, 2001; Trudgill, 1974). Pakistani men, as discussed above, are at an advantage in Pakistani society, and as a result are probably are less status conscious overall,

and so possess a lower sense of linguistic insecurity. A higher sense of linguistic insecurity among women make them more sensitive to standard norms of language (Labov, 1990). That is most likely why Pakistani women are less rhotic than men.

The results also suggest that linguistic environment plays a role in the rhotic behaviour of the speakers. For instance, speakers with higher socioeconomic status are more rhotic in the final position than in pre-consonantal contexts. Speakers with higher English media consumption are also less rhotic. The finding of this research are in disagreement with the commonly held view among sociolinguists (e.g. Chambers, 1998; Labov & Harris, 1986; Trudgill, 1986) that media does not influence linguistic behaviour because of the lack of face-to-face contact between the TV characters and the viewers. The findings of this research support the claims that media plays a role in language variation and change (see Muhr, 2003; Stuart-Smith, 2007; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013).

The findings also show that speakers with a higher amount of British media consumption are more likely to be rhotic in final position than pre-consonantal contexts. This is possibly because of the level of attention paid to the media content because it is believed that the level of psychological engagement with the media content is likely to determine the degree of the media effect. The strong psychological engagement with the media programmes has more impact than mere exposure innovations (Ota & Takano, 2014; Stuart-Smith, 2011, 2012).

The results also suggest that speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent are likely to be less rhotic in both final and pre-consonantal positions. This is probably related to the socio-economic status of the speakers as participants from higher socioeconomic status tend to rate Pakistani accent more favourably (see chapter 4) and are likely to be less rhotic.

It was also expected that attitudes would play some role in the variation of realisation of /t/ and /r/ in Pakistani English. Speakers with more positive attitudes towards the British accent produced lower number of trills. Similarly, speakers with more positive attitudes towards the British accent are less rhotic in the final position. On the other hand, speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent produced higher number of retroflex [ʈ]. This seems that Pakistani speakers who are more positive towards standard norms of accent tend to produce prestigious forms of accent. On the other hand, speakers with more positive attitudes towards the local norms of language tend to produce local forms of accent. This shows that speakers' attitudes towards different accents of English is likely to play some role in accent variation and change. It may be important to comment here that merely attitudes may not trigger a change in linguistically and geographically isolated communities because along with psychological factors there has to be some channels of transmission for the linguistic variables (Carvalho, 2004). For the language variation to take place on the native patterns, it is important for the speakers to have some sort of exposure of the target variety of English. In geographically isolated communities, media plays this role of introducing the speakers to variants of native speech inspiring variation (see more discussion in chapter 7).

6.4 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have provided a detailed account of the analysis of two linguistic variables, /t/ and /r/. The findings suggest that pronunciation of /t/ and /r/ is conditioned by a number of factors including type of media consumption, attitudes, linguistic and social factors. Media consumption and attitudes are significantly correlated with production /t/ and /r/. In the next chapter, I provide a comprehensive discussion of the findings.

7 Discussion

This dissertation mainly investigates three different yet related phenomena among Pakistani speakers of English. First, it presents an overall picture of media consumption of Pakistani speakers of English. Second, it describes the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards three accents: British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent. Also, how media consumption and other social factors influence attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards the British accent, American accent and Pakistani accent of English. The findings suggest interesting relationships among social factors and media consumption and also between language attitudes and media consumption. The results suggest that the participants have more positive attitudes toward British and American accents and the least positive toward the Pakistani accent of English.

Third, this dissertation explores the role of media engagement, language attitudes and social factors in language variation and change using the variationist framework of research. It investigated the presence of American and British accent features in Pakistani English speech. The results indicate that there is a correlation between speakers' accent and factors of media consumption, language attitudes and social factors. The observed variation in the realization of consonants by Pakistani speakers implies that attitudes and media consumption are likely to play a role in the linguistic behaviour of the speakers. The results indicate the presence of native-like, British and American features, in the realization of consonants (see chapter 6). In the following sections, I provide a detailed answer to each of the following main questions posed in chapter one.

1. What is the type and degree of media consumption among Pakistani speakers of English?

2. What are the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards different accents of English, specifically General American (GA), British accent (RP) and the Pakistani English (PE) accent? How are speakers' attitudes predicted by the type of media consumption and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status?
3. Do speakers with higher/lower consumption of British and American media tend to have more/less features of British and American accent in their speech?
4. Do speakers with positive/negative attitudes towards RP, GA and PE adopt more/less accent features typical of these varieties?

7.1 Media consumption practices

The first research question deals with media consumption of Pakistani speakers of English. The analysis of the various sections of the media-related portion of the questionnaire shows that Pakistani speakers of English use a variety of media programmes that include Urdu media programmes, Hindi media programmes, and both American and British English media programmes. Previous studies conducted on media practices among Pakistani youth reported similar findings on consumption of English, Urdu and Hindi media (Anjum, 2012; A. Hassan & Daniyal, 2013; Rahman, 2015). Results also show that Pakistani speakers of English consume different genres of media programmes such as movies, talk shows, plays, music, news and recorded content like language learning materials. In English media, movies and music have been reported to be the most consumed genres of media. In Pakistani media, Urdu dramas seem to be popular among Pakistani youth with small differences between men and women. Likewise, in Indian media, Hindi movies seem to be popular among Pakistani men and women.

The study also shows that Pakistani men and women use British and American media for different motives. They use media for English language learning, entertainment, information

and passing time. For instance, respondents have reported the use of media for improving their pronunciation and accent. This shows that one of the important motives of media consumption among Pakistani youth is self-education, particularly regarding different aspects of English language. Results indicate that entertainment and information are also important motives for consuming British and American media among Pakistani men and women. For instance, in American media, participants reported a considerable use of movies, music and recorded speeches of important American personalities. Likewise, in British media, Pakistani men and women use movies, shows, British language learning series and British accent training audio/video content for English language learning. The findings are in agreement with previous studies that reported and proposed the use of media for language learning purposes (See Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Curtis, 2007; Sherman, 2003; Sommer, 2001).

7.2 Language attitudes among Pakistani speakers of English

The second main research question that this dissertation answers is about the investigation of attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards British, American and Pakistani accents of English. The results show that Pakistani speakers have a highly positive attitude towards British and American accents of English whereas participants have the least positive attitude towards the Pakistani accent of English. Participants rated British, American and Pakistani accents of English in a descending pattern. On most of the dimensions of solidarity, status and personal preferences, the British accent was rated higher than American and Pakistani accents.

The results are in line with findings of previous attitude studies that speakers tend to rate standard varieties of English higher than nonstandard varieties (Dalton-Puffer et al., 1997; Hiraga, 2005; Ladegaard & Sachdev, 2006). The findings of this survey are also in agreement with the previous studies conducted on attitudes towards British and Pakistani English which

show that Pakistani people rate British English more positively than Pakistani English (e.g. Parveen & Mehmood, 2013). On some dimensions, the Pakistani accent was rated as positively as the British and American accent (see chapter 4) which perhaps signals a sense of liking and ownership for Pakistani accent.

One possible reason for the low rating of Pakistani accent of English could be the linguistic inferiority which they attach with the Pakistani accent which is the outcome of their stereotypical notion of Pakistani accent being non-standard. This could also be the indication of 'linguistic self-hatred' among Pakistani speakers as observed in speakers of the New York accent (Labov, 2006, p. 329). Similar linguistic self-hatred was reported by some other studies conducted in Montreal (See Lambert, 1967), in Glasgow (Macaulay, 1975), and in Dublin (Edwards, 1979). While explaining the possible reason for this linguistic self-hatred, Labov (2006) remarked that this linguistic self-hatred could be the outcome of immense pressure `towards conformity with middle class norms of speech' (p.331). In the Pakistani context, the strong liking and preference for native accent varieties is probably the outcome of perceived pressure of commonly held stereotypical notion that British accent is superior and correct. The results of the survey are also the reflection of the prevailing notion among Pakistani speakers that the English language is the native speech of British and therefore RP should be the preferred model. In the context of world Englishes, it could be the pressure to conform to inner circle English (Kachru, 1997) that makes them rate native accents (British and American) higher and their own variety of accent lower.

Social factors of gender and socioeconomic status were found to play a role in variation across the speakers. For instance, Pakistani accent was rated higher by men than women. This, most likely, shows that women are more status conscious and they prefer a standard norms of language (Labov, 1990). As discussed above, the gender divide in patriarchal societies such as

Pakistani society is generally large, which may lead to a higher sense of status consciousness and linguistic insecurity among women. Women are known to be leaders in 'both the acquisition of new prestige patterns and the elimination of stigmatized forms' (Labov, 1990, p. 213). As discussed above, Pakistani men are less status conscious and probably possess a lower sense of linguistic insecurity. Speakers with higher sense of 'linguistic insecurity are most sensitive' to standard norms (Labov, 1990, p. 213). That is most likely why men rated the Pakistani accent of English higher than women. The findings also suggest that the social factor of socioeconomic status is negatively correlated with accent ratings in the case of British accent. In other words, people with higher socioeconomic status rated a British accent lower. Probably, people with higher socioeconomic status are not concerned much about their accent since they already have acquired prestige in other ways (such as via their socioeconomic status, of course). Accents are sometimes used to gain economical gains and social prestige. Since people with higher socioeconomic status tend to have lower sense of linguistic insecurity (Labov, 2006), they, therefore, tend to rate standard norms of language less favourably. On the other hand, speakers with lower socioeconomic status show 'a profound linguistic insecurity' (Labov, 2006, p. 318). Moreover, prestigious form of a language may serve as a passport to better social class. English is a symbol of high status and sophistication and is a 'passport to success and upward social mobility' in Pakistan (Cheema & Singh 2015, p. 47). That is most likely why speakers with lower socioeconomic status rated the British accent and the American accent more favourably.

Findings also show an interesting relationship between media consumption, attitudes and social factors. The results indicate that participants with higher English media consumption have more positive attitudes towards British and American accents. Participants with higher consumption of English language media rated the American accent more favourably. Likewise,

Participants with higher amount of Pakistani media consumption rated the Pakistani accent more favourably. It seems that engagement with different media programmes is influencing Pakistani speakers' attitudes towards RP and GA. This engagement with British and American media programmes, probably, has contributed in the development of their attitudes towards RP and GA. Likewise, it seems that engagement with Pakistani media programmes contributes in the development of sense of ownership and belonging for Pakistani cultures and languages. This reflects in their attitudes towards the Pakistani accent of English. This shows the type of media consumption influences speakers' attitudes towards varieties of English (see Bayard et al., 2001).

The American accent of English was next most positively rated after the British accent. The positive attitudes towards the American accent could likely be because of the influence of American media, as Pakistani speakers have reported a substantial consumption of American media (see chapter 4). The present research provides evidence that participants with higher consumption of English language that includes both American and British media rated the American accent favourably. Bayard et al. (2001) suggested that the reason for positive attitudes towards the American accent is the strong impact of American media. The revolution in the media industry in the last two decades, especially the availability of online streaming services and cable TV has provided people in countries where English is not spoken natively with access to English media content which is predominantly American.

7.3 Media Consumption as a predictor of Linguistic Behaviour

The third important question was to investigate the correlation between the media consumption of the speakers and their linguistic behaviour. It was hypothesized that speakers with more American and British media engagement would produce more American and British features

in their speech, whereas speakers with less British and American media were expected to speak with a more Pakistani accent of English. Each speaker's media consumption score was calculated using a questionnaire and media diary. Findings suggest that speakers' media consumption is a good predictor of their linguistic behaviour. Speakers with higher American and British media consumption showed a higher probability of producing /t/ and /r/ in a more American and British way. In case of /t/ articulation, speakers with a higher score of medEngLangLearn (English media for language learning) and Prop.all.USA (American media) showed a higher probability of producing tap [ɾ] in intervocalic positions. Likewise, medEngLangEnt (English media for entertainment), medPakInd (Pakistani and Indian media) and prop.all.pak (Pakistani media) significantly predicted the realization of alveolar /t/. Findings show that speakers with higher scores of medEngLangEnt are more likely to produce alveolar /t/ in intervocalic position. On the other hand, speakers with higher score of medPakInd and prop.all.pak are less likely to produce alveolar /t/. Findings also show that the probability of retroflex [ʈ] is higher in speakers with higher scores of prop.all.pak. On the other hand, speakers with higher scores of Prop.all.USA are less likely to produce retroflex [ʈ]. Also, the probability of retroflex [ʈ] is lower in speakers with higher socioeconomic status. Similarly, the analysis of postvocalic /r/ showed that interactions of prop.all.uk and Prop.all.USA with linguistic environment predicted speakers' linguistic behaviour. Speakers with higher consumption of prop.all.USA (American media) are more likely to be rhotic in the final position. Speakers with higher scores of medEngLangLearn are less likely to produce trill /r/ in the final position. On the other hand, speakers with higher score of medPakInd are more likely to produce trill in the final position.

The findings of this research are in agreement with previous research studies that suggest that there is a relationship between speakers' media consumption and their linguistic behaviour

(Carvalho, 2004; Lameli, 2004; Muhr, 2003; Stuart-Smith et al., 2013). However, it is commonly believed that face-to-face interaction is required for language variation (Trudgill, 1986). This research deals with second language speakers of English who do not have any international exposure and they have spent majority of their life in Pakistan where the possibility of face-to-face interaction with the British and American speakers is very rare. Therefore, the source of this linguistic change cannot be face-to-face interaction with the native speakers of English. As a result, one wonders how features of native speech spread into Pakistani English speech. English media programmes that include both British and American media provide a channel for the transmission of native speech patterns to second language speakers of English in countries like Pakistan. It seems that exposure to American and British media has influenced the Pakistani speakers of English to adopt features of General American English and British English (RP). The examination of media practices of Pakistani speakers show that they consume a substantial amount of British and American media programmes. British and American media programmes provide Pakistani speakers with samples of British and American speech, implementing the features of these varieties of English into Pakistani speakers' speech repertoire. According to Trudgill (1986), television cannot play a role in language variation and change because face-to-face interaction is necessary for diffusion. Some other linguists also supported this argument (Chambers, 1998; Labov & Harris, 1986). These linguists believe that linguistic traits of one group can be spread to other varieties only through personal interaction. Denying the role of television and radio and stressing the role of interaction, Labov and Harris (1986) argue that 'those speakers who engage in structured interaction with whites, where they use language to negotiate their position or gain advantages, show a profound shift of their grammatical rules'(p.20). Chambers (1998) expressed similar opinion that exposure to standard speech on television may enhance its prestige but for linguistic change too take place, interaction is required.

Some studies also suggested that besides sufficient exposure to television, psychological factors such as positive attitude towards a dialect are important (Carvalho, 2004; Saladino, 1990). As discussed in chapter 4, the Pakistani speakers rated British and American varieties of accents more favourably, showing their positive attitudes towards British and American accent. These positive attitudes towards British and American speech could be a defining factor for the adoption of native accent features presented through media programmes. Boberg (2000) investigated the role of mass media in the adoption of American English features by Canadians. He concluded that the defining factor in the adoption of American English variants through media is the prestige of certain variants perceived to be correct. Similarly, Carvalho (2004) reported in her research on Portuguese in which young, middle class and female participants produced forms more like Brazilian speakers. The investigation of the individual participant's attitudes towards UP and BP explain why some people adopted the features of BP. This shows that speakers will only adopt a feature presented through media programmes if they feel positive towards that feature. In the present research, the majority of the Pakistani speakers have reported positive attitudes towards British and American accents of English, so it is highly likely that they produce forms of American and British native speech when they hear it through media programmes. This is, perhaps, Pakistani speakers' linguistic insecurity triggered by common perception about their own Pakistani accent being non-standard and faulty that motivates them to assimilate features of British and American accents presented in media programmes. I, therefore, argue that in isolated communities such as Pakistan, media is the biggest provider of linguistic models to non-native speakers of English. Second language speakers adopt the features of RP and General American English transmitted through media as they are the preferred varieties of English among Second language speakers of English.

The diffusion of these innovations in Pakistani English may have taken place in two-step accommodation process. It is possible that speakers picked and copied these innovations from media in the first phase (see Bayard, 1990). In the second phase, these innovations spread to peers through normal face-to-face interaction, becoming a part of Pakistani English. These innovations seem to be well-established in the Pakistani variety of English, and while exposure to RP or GA through media reinforces the legitimacy of these innovations, perhaps all speakers of Pakistani English also, sometimes, use these innovations. It may also be a three step process where media plays an important role in two phases. In the first phase, media introduces the innovations to second language speakers that leads to copying of the innovations. In the second phase, face-to-face interaction among the peers plays a vital role in the spread of the innovations. In the third phase, media engagement reinforces the legitimacy of these innovations.

Findings also suggest that speakers who actively engage with English language media for language learning are more likely to use linguistic innovation such as tap [ɾ]. Likewise, media diary scores which represent speakers' favourite programmes show significant correlation with linguistic variables. For instance, engagement with American media reported in the diary show positive correlation with the phenomenon of tapping [ɾ]. Similarly, engagement with British media reported in the media dairy show positive correlation with non-rhotic behaviour. This most likely suggest that level of attention paid to the media content during media consumption plays an important role in the adoption of linguistic innovations (Ota & Takano, 2014; Stuart-Smith, 2011, 2012). However, the findings also show that the speakers who consume English language media for entertainment and time passing as reported in questionnaire are more likely to produce alveolar [t]. It is assumed that the level of psychological engagement with media programmes used for entertainment is comparatively lower. The finding suggests that exposure

to media programmes is also likely to play some role in language change. In light of this, I argue that active engagement with media programmes can play a crucial role in language change. However, the role of media exposure (where the level of psychological engagement may be weak) in language change may not be completely denied. I therefore argue that studies that test the media effects on language variation and change should include both media exposure and media engagement.

7.4 Correlation between Attitudes and Linguistic Behaviour

The fourth main question of this thesis is about the relationship between speakers' attitudes and their linguistic behaviour. Results of this research suggest that retroflexion of /t/ is significantly correlated with speakers' attitudes towards the Pakistani accent of English. Likewise, production of postvocalic /r/ is significantly correlated with speakers' attitudes towards Pakistani accent. Generally, speakers with more positive attitudes towards the Pakistani accent of English showed higher likelihood of producing retroflex [ʈ] in intervocalic positions. Similarly, speakers with more positive attitudes towards Pakistani accent are more rhotic. On the other hand, the probability of trill realisation is lower in speakers with more positive attitudes towards British accent. The speakers with more positive attitudes towards Pakistani produced /t/ and /r/ in Pakistani way, signalling their strong sense of ownership and liking for Pakistani accent whereas speakers who feel more positive towards British accent were found to be less rhotic. As discussed in chapter 4, Pakistani speakers, generally, have positive attitudes towards the British accent. These favourable attitudes towards the British accent probably serve as a motivation for the adoption of British accent features. There may be Pakistani speakers of English who take pride in being the speakers of Pakistani accent and tend to produce variants that are typical to Pakistani English. For instance, it is possible that

retroflexion of /t/ is perceived as a marker of Pakistani identity by speakers with more positive attitudes Pakistani accent and this is reflected in their speech. The findings of this research are not in accordance with some of the previous studies which claim that attitudes are unlikely to play a role in language change (see Trudgill, 2004, 2008). The findings support the findings of other studies (e.g. Johnsen, 2015; Wang, 2017) that reported that attitudes condition linguistic behaviour.

In most of the studies carried on attitudes and linguistic behaviour, a direct correlation was very rarely reported between the explicit attitudes and linguistic production. In L2 contexts, positive attitudes and motivation to model ones' speech on native patterns could be a strong factor behind the adoption of native speech features. According to Gallois et al. (2012), direct methods of attitude measurement can be good indicators of participants' beliefs and perceptions 'but not as good to measure how people behave in real interactions'(p.34). However, in the area of second language acquisition, language learners' attitudes can predict their behaviour (Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983). Using a questionnaire, Gardner et al. (1983) investigated the relationship between language learners' attitudes and their motivation. They concluded that second language learners' attitudes are predictors of their motivation as well as proficiency. In Pakistani contexts, attitudes and motivation are likely to play a very important role in the adoption of native accent features.

However, in L2 contexts, attitudes alone may not play any role in the adoption of native-like speech features. It is very important that speakers have access to native speech patterns through some channel of communication. So, I partly agree with Trudgill (2008) that language contact is important for language change to take place. However, speakers are less likely to adopt features even in face-to-face contact that they don't like especially when they are explicitly aware of the social meanings attached to those features (see Nycz, 2016). So therefore, for

language change to take place on native patterns, it is important that speakers have right amount of motivation and sufficient contact with the native speech. In L2 contexts, media plays an important role in exposing the second language speakers of English to native English speech such as RP and GA. I, therefore, argue that for the accommodation of linguistic innovations, both psychological and social motives are required (Carvalho, 2004; Saladino, 1990). In the present context, positive attitudes towards British and American accent and the presentation of RP and GA accent features through different media serve this purpose.

7.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have summarized the findings of the study discussing the general picture of attitudes and media consumption among Pakistani speakers and how speakers' attitudes are related to their media use patterns and social factors of gender and socioeconomic status. More importantly, I have discussed the influence of attitudes and media consumption on linguistic behaviour of second language speakers in Pakistan outlining the role of attitudes and media in language variation and change in the light of previous studies.

8 Conclusion

Despite the variation due to social and other factors, the findings generally show that second language speakers of English in Pakistan consume a considerable amount of English media which includes American, British and other types of English language media. Generally, the findings obtained in the attitude section of the study suggest that second language speakers of English in Pakistan tend to rate standard varieties of English more positively than the non-native ones such as the Pakistani accent. The findings also suggest that the Pakistani accent of English is considered equal to British and American accents of English on a few dimensions of solidarity and status. Responding to the cultural preferences, the majority of the participants rated Pakistani culture and life style higher than British and American life style. Although speakers showed more positive attitudes towards native accents of English, they expressed a strong liking for their own culture and life style because of strong cultural identity and bonding. Positive attitudes towards standard varieties of accent are shared by Pakistani speakers of English. In other words, regardless of the gender and socioeconomic differences, British and American accents were given preference. The findings of the research demonstrate that standard varieties of English are rated more favourably than non-standard ones. The findings also confirm that there is a relationship between attitudes and media consumption.

An important part of this thesis is the exploration of the role of media engagement, language attitudes and social factors on the speech production of Pakistani speakers of English. The results show that there is a correlation between the attitudes and linguistic behaviour of the participants. Speakers' attitudinal index, to some extent, was found to be a predictor of their use of linguistic variants. This supports the notion that attitudes influence behaviour and implies that attitudes are likely to play some role in the adoption of certain linguistic features.

It also supports that they are predictors of linguistic behaviour. The results also suggested that there is a correlation between speakers' media engagement and language production. Findings showed that the media index score calculated from the questionnaire and media diary had effects on the use of linguistic features. Results suggested that participants' type of media engagement had an effect on their linguistic behaviour. Speakers who engaged with American media and British media more produced more features of American and British accent. On the other hand, speakers with higher scores of non-English media, such as Urdu, and lower scores of English media, produced the Pakistani variants of /t/ and /r/.

These findings provide evidence that the type of media the speakers engage with is likely to play an important role in language variation and change. The results of the present study are in disagreement with the view that media does not play a role in language variation and change. The findings suggest that media plays a role in the given situation and context where speakers do not have any face-to-face contact with native American and British speech except through media programmes. From the methodological perspective, the findings show that questionnaire can be a useful data collection tool to collect media and attitude related information from participants. Moreover, it shows that a media diary is a helpful tool to measure daily media consumption of the participants.

8.1 Contributions

This study contributes to the existing literature on language attitude research by documenting the attitudes of Pakistani speakers of English towards three accents: British, American and Pakistani English. Moreover, media consumption has never been given consideration in the previous language attitude studies conducted in Pakistan. This study takes into consideration the role of gender, socioeconomic status and media consumption while recording the attitudes

of Pakistani speakers towards British, American and Pakistani accents of English. Unlike previous studies on language attitudes in Pakistan, this study employs modern methods of statistical analysis such as mixed effects regression models and principal component analysis.

This study explored the media practices of Pakistani speakers of English and examined how participants' language attitudes are conditioned by the type of media they consume. The findings confirm that there is a relationship between speakers' attitude and their media consumption. Moreover, this thesis also contributes to the media studies conducted on media consumption in Pakistan, especially the consumption of American and British media among Pakistani speakers of English. There is a dearth of media studies in Pakistan that exclusively deal with the exploration of media habits and practices related to English language media, especially British and American.

This thesis also contributes to the existing body of knowledge in the field of language variation and change by exploring the possible effect of speakers' attitudes, media consumption and linguistic and social factors on their linguistic behaviour. The findings show that speakers' linguistic behaviour is conditioned by their attitudes and media consumption.

I used a media diary in addition to variationist methodology to record the media consumption of Pakistani speakers and to see how media consumption is correlated with participants' pronunciation. The media diary, to the best of my knowledge, has never been used in variation research methods. The introduction of the media diary in the field of language variation and change is one of the contributions of this research.

For this thesis, I developed the Corpus of Pakistani English (COPE) that contains 158,453 words. To the best of my knowledge, it is the largest spoken corpus of Pakistani English speech. This corpus will lead to a number of studies on Pakistani English speech.

8.2 Limitations and Future Directions

This dissertation included three accents of English: Pakistani, British and American. Future studies should include other native and non-native accents of English. Moreover, this dissertation recorded the beliefs and perceptions of young participants, future research studies should study the attitudes of older and younger participants to examine how age plays a role in their attitudes towards native and non-native accents of English. Likewise, this study examined how attitudes are related to the media practices of young participants. Future research should focus on older and younger generations to investigate the relationship between the amount and type of media consumption and their language attitudes.

In addition to giving a detailed account of language attitudes and media consumption among Pakistani speakers of English, this dissertation focused on the investigation of two linguistic features, /t/ and /r/, and the findings suggested enormous variation across speakers and led to interesting outcomes. However, the thesis could only focus on two linguistic features due to time limitations, and these features may not be able to portray the complete picture of variation among Pakistani English speech. Therefore, to understand the other aspects of variation, future research should focus on other linguistic features like other segmental features and supra segmental aspects of Pakistani English speech. Moreover, this study deals with the speech of young Pakistani speakers, future research should focus on older and younger speakers to examine the influence of media consumption and language attitudes on their speech.

In this research investigation, the project mainly focused on inter-speaker variations. However, speakers are also likely to exhibit style shifting in various aspects of speech in different social contexts (Gnevsheva, 2015a). It will therefore be interesting to conduct research on intra-speaker variations among Pakistani speakers of English in different social situations, for

instance, in the presence of different auditors, different topics and in different settings to examine how speakers vary their speech in different situational contexts. The present research focused on production only, future research should focus on perception to see how Pakistani speech is perceived by Pakistani speakers and international speakers.

As a whole, this thesis has contributed to the existing body of studies on the role of media and language attitudes in language variation and change by presenting a case from Pakistan.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

A Sociophonetic Investigation of English in Pakistan

My name is Arshad Ali and I am a PHD student in the Department of Linguistics at the University of Canterbury, New Zealand . This study will serve as part of my doctoral thesis and studies how people from different backgrounds and attitudes speak English language.

I am looking specifically for people who are pakistani speakers of English and have spent the majority of their life living in Pakistan and are between 18-24 years of their age . If this is the case for you, then I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

In the first phase of the research , you are required to fill this questionnaire. There are no right and wrong answers.

If you are interested to participate in the 2nd phase of the study which includes media diary filling, interview recording, passage reading and a word list reading, please provide your contact details on the last page of the questionnaire. For your time you will receive Nz$20 (1500 Pak Rupee) as token of appreciation after the 2nd phase of the study.

The results of this project will likely be published and presented at conferences, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this project and at no point will your identity be made public.

By Clicking NEXT, You agree to take part in the survey

* Required

Demographic Information

1. **What is your year of birth?** *

2. **What is your Gender?** *
   Mark only one oval.
   - ◯ Male
   - ◯ Female

3. **What is your occupation?** *
   Mark only one oval.
   - ◯ Full time Student
   - ◯ Part time student

4. **What is your Father's educational Qualification?** *
Mark only one oval.

- ◯ No Formal education
- ◯ Matric/O levels/SSC
- ◯ FA/FSc/A Levels/HSSC
- ◯ BA/BSc/BBA/Bachelors
- ◯ MA/MSc/Masters
- ◯ MS/M.Phil
- ◯ PhD
- ◯ Other: _____

5. **What is your Mother's educational Qualification?** *
Mark only one oval.

- ◯ No Formal education
- ◯ Matric/O levels/SSC
- ◯ FA/FSc/A Levels/HSSC
- ◯ BA/BSc/BBA/Bachelors
- ◯ MA/MSc/Masters
- ◯ MS/M.Phil
- ◯ PhD
- ◯ Other: _____

6. **What is your father's occupation?** *

_____

7. **What is your mother's occupation?** *

_____

8. **Enlist the languages you can speak** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Urdu
- [ ] English
- [ ] Punjabi
- [ ] Sindhi
- [ ] Balochi
- [ ] Pushto
- [ ] Saraiki
- [ ] Balti
- [ ] Kashmiri
- [ ] Hindko
- [ ] Other: _____

9. **What is your first language?** *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Urdu
- ◯ English
- ◯ Punjabi
- ◯ Sindhi
- ◯ Balochi
- ◯ Pushto
- ◯ Saraiki
- ◯ Balti
- ◯ Kashmiri
- ◯ Hindko
- ◯ Other: _____

10. **What type of secondary School did you attend?** *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Government
- ◯ Semi-Government
- ◯ Private

11. **What was your monthly school fee?** *

_____

12. **What is the name of your school?** *

_____

13. **Where did you grow up?** *
Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Urban
- ◯ Rural
- ◯ Both,Rural and Urban
- ◯ Other: _____

14. **If you are currently enrolled in any college or university, what is the name of your college/university?** *

_____

15. **In which academic program, are you currently enrolled?** *

_____

16. **Which semester?** *

_____

How often do you watch/listen the following type of media?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5= Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

17. **News in English language** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

18. **Movies in English language** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

19. **Music in English language** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

20. **TV shows in English language** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

21. **American News Channels like CNN etc** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

22. **American TV shows** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

23. **American Movies** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

24. **American Music** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

25. **American sports channels** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

26. **British News Channels like BBC etc** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

27. **British TV shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

28. **British movies** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

29. **British Music** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

30. **Pakistani English News Channel** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

31. **Pakistani English Talk shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

32. **Pakistani English Radio channels** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

33. **Urdu TV programs** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

34. **Pakistani Movies** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

35. **Indian movies** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

36. **Indian TV shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

37. **Indian TV Plays/Dramas** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

38. **Indian News Channels** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

How often do you use / have used the following type of media for English language learning purposes?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week , 5= Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

39. **American language learning series with Audio** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

40. **American Language learning Videos** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

41. **American Talk shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

42. **American Movies** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

43. **American Music** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

44. **American plays** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

45. **American Accent Training Audio/Video** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

46. **Speeches of Important American personalities** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

47. **British English Language series like BBC English for language learners** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

48. **British Plays** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

49. **British Shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

50. **British Movies** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

51. **Speeches of important British personalities** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

52. **British Accent Training Audio/Video** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

53. **Pakistani English News Channels** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

How often do you use media for the following purposes?

0=Never, 1= One day per week, 2= two days per week, 3= Three days a week, 4= Four days a week, 5= Five days a week, 6= Six days a week, 7= Daily/Every day

54. **To know how Americans interact socially** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

55. **To know how Americans use words in their interaction** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

56. **To learn how Americans speak in different situations** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

57. **To learn about American life style** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

58. **To learn about British Life style** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

59. **To learn how British people interact** *

Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

60. **To learn British accent** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

61. **To improve your pronunciation** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

62. **To watch British talk shows** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

63. **To find out what is going on in the world** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

64. **To improve your accent** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

65. **To entertain yourself** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

66. **To watch sports matches** *
Mark only one oval.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Daily

How do you rate the following statements?

1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral , 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

67. **I like the British accent** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

68. **The British accent is friendly** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

69. **The British accent is trendy** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

70. **The British accent is pleasant** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

71. **The British accent is a symbol of intelligence** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

72. **People value the British Accent** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

73. **The British accent is popular** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

74. **The British accent is modern and stylish** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

75. **I like to speak with a British accent** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

76. **I like to speak with a British accent because I want to sound like British speakers** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

77. **The British accent can help me find a good job** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

78. **The British accent is powerful and influential** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

79. **I speak with British accent** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

80. **People should get British accent training** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

81. **People can get more attention with British accent in official and social gatherings** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

82. **British culture and life style is really good** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

83. **I like the American accent** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

84. **The American accent is friendly** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

85. **The American accent is pleasant** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

86. **The American accent is trendy** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

87. **The American accent is symbol of intelligence** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

88. **People value the American accent** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

89. **The American accent is popular** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

90. **The American accent is modern and stylish** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

91. **I like to speak with American Accent because I want to sound like American speakers** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

92. **American accent will help me get a good job** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

93. **The American accent is influential and powerful** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

94. **I speak with an American accent** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

95. **People can get more attention with American accent in official and social gatherings** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

96. **People should get American accent training** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

97. **American culture and life style is really good** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

98. **I like the Pakistani accent of English** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

99. **The Pakistani accent of English can help me find a good job** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

100. **The Pakistani accent is influential and powerful** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

101. **I speak with the Pakistani accent of English** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

102. **The Pakistani accent is friendly** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

103. **The Pakistani accent of English is pleasant** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

104. **The Pakistani accent is trendy** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

105. **The Pakistani accent is a symbol of intelligence** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

106. **People value the Pakistani accent** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

107. **The Pakistani accent is popular** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

108. **The Pakistani accent is modern and stylish** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

109. **People can get more attention with the Pakistani accent in social and official gatherings** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

110. **I like to speak with Pakistani accent because I want to sound like Pakistani speakers** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

111. **Pakistani culture and life style is really good** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

Please answer the following questions

112. **I have access to TV at home** *
Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

113. **I have access to only free channels at home like PTV channels** *
Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

114. **I have access to Cable TV at home** *
Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

115. **I have access to a Satellite Dish at home** *
Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

116. **I have a Broadband internet connection at home** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

117. **I have a computer at home** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

118. **I use a computer to watch videos** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

119. **I have a tablet** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

120. **I use a tablet for watching videos** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

121. **I have a smartphone** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

122. **I use a smartphone for watching videos** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

123. **I have a laptop** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

124. **I use a laptop for watching Videos** *

Check all that apply.

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] NO

How do you rate the following statements?

1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral , 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree

125. **I watch English movies and shows on my Cell Phone** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

126. **I use YouTube to watch English Movies** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

127. **I watch English movies and shows online.** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

128. **I avoid watching English movies because of cultural and religious reasons** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

129. **I watch English News** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Agree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Disagree

130. **I watch the BBC news channel** *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

131. **I listen to English Songs on Radio Channels** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

132. **I watch CNN news** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

133. **I watch English movies at home with family members** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

134. **I watch Pakistani English News Channel (PTV World)** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

135. **My teachers use/used English audio/video material for teaching purposes.** *
Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

Thanks for your time. If You would like to take part in the next phase of the study, please provide your email address below

Next phase of the study includes Media diary filling, interview recording, a word list reading and a passage reading. You will receive $20 (Equivalent in Pakistani Currency) for your time.

136. **What is your email address?**

Appendix B: Ethics Approval

UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY
Te Whare Wānanga o Waitaha
CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Rebecca Robinson
Telephone: +64 03 369 4588, Extn 94588
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2016/77/LR-PS

13 January 2017

Arshad Ali
Linguistics
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Arshad

Thank you for submitting your low risk application to the Human Ethics Committee for the research proposal titled "Sociophonetic Investigation of English in Pakistan".

I am pleased to advise that this application has been reviewed and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 12th January 2017.

With best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

pp. R. Robinson

Associate Professor Jane Maidment
Chair, Human Ethics Committee

Appendix C: Information Sheet for Participants

Variations among English speakers in Pakistan

Hello,

My name is **Arshad Ali** and I'm a PhD student in the Department of Linguistics at University of Canterbury New Zealand. This study will be included as part of my doctoral thesis and it examines the variations among English speakers in Pakistan

Your participation in this project will include four tasks completed in two phases. In the 1st phase, you will be asked to provide your socio-demographic information on a questionnaire. In the second phase, a semi structured interview of 30-40 minutes will be recorded followed by recordings of a passage reading and a word list. All of this should take an hour and half of your time.

Generally speaking, the task does not involve any risks and the recordings will be performed in a quiet place that suits you. You may take breaks in the middle of, and in between each of the tasks if you feel so inclined. Also, you are free to withdraw from the experiment at any time without penalty, and this includes removing your data from the study for any reason, so long as you make such a request prior to leaving this session. Should you be interested, you may receive a copy of the project results by contacting me at the conclusion of the project.

The results of this project may be published and presented at conferences, and the data from your responses will be stored permanently, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this project. As mentioned above, results will be included in my doctoral thesis. To be clear, theses are public documents, and a summary of this work will therefore be made available through the UC Library.

As a principle researcher, I am undertaking this study under the supervision of Dr. Kevin Watson, who can be contacted at kevin.watson@canterbury.ac.nz. We are both available to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate, you are asked to complete the consent form and please return it before taking part in the study.

Appendix D: Email Script

Hello,

Thanks for showing an interest in my study on speech variation! I hope that this email will answer any questions you might have.

My name is Arshad Ali and I am a PHD student in the Department of Linguistics at the University of Canterbury. This study will serve as part of my doctoral thesis and explores the speech variations among English speakers in Pakistan.

I am looking specifically for people who are Pakistani speakers of English and have spent the majority of their life living in Pakistan and are between 18-24 years of their age. If this is the case for you, then I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

If you choose to participate, you will do four tasks that include questionnaire filling, interview recording, passage reading and a word list reading. The whole session will last an hour and half.

For your time you will receive Nz$20 (1500 Pak Rupee) as token of appreciation.

You are free to take breaks during the tasks. Participation is voluntary, which means you are also free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty – this includes removing your data from the study, so long as you make such a request before leaving the session. The results of this project will likely be published and presented at conferences, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this project and at no point will your identity be made public. Please feel free to ask me any further questions that you might have (arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz), and I'll be sure to respond as quickly as possible.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

Many thanks,

Arshad Ali

Appendix E: Consent Form

Department: Linguistics

Telephone: +64 3 364 2987 ext 8858

Email: arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Title of the Project: **Variations among English speakers in Pakistan**

(CONSENT FORM)

I fully understand the above-named project, and the complete description of the project has been provided to me. I am willing to participate in the project which includes questionnaire filling, interview recording, passage reading and word list, and I give my consent for the results of the data collected to be used for research purposes and publications with the understanding that confidentiality will be preserved.

I understand that all data collected for this study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form.

Further, I understand that consent forms will be destroyed after 10 years; however, the anonymized data will be kept indefinitely and may be used and shared by the researcher in follow-up research studies of a similar nature. I also understand that some part of the data may be used for designing listening tests.

I understand also that my participation in the project is voluntary and I may, at any time, withdraw from the project.

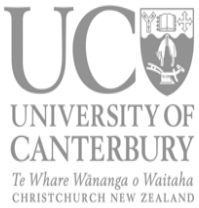
Should I have any questions or concerns, I understand that I can contact the researcher Arshad Ali (arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz) or his supervisor, Dr. Kevin Watson (kevin.watson@canterbury.ac.nz), for further information. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research project:

_____ _____ (/ /)

Name Signature Date

Appendix F: Poster



Participants Wanted

For Linguistics Experiment

I am looking for people who are between 18-24 years of their age and who have spent most of their life in Pakistan to be involved in a linguistics experiment which examines speech production.

The experiment will take an hour and half, and you will receive **$20 (1500 Pak rupee)** as a token of appreciation for your time.

Contact **arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz** for more info

Experiment on Speech Production Email: Arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
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Experiment on Speech Production Email: Arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Experiment on Speech Perception Email: andy.gibson@pg.canterbury.ac.nz Experiment on Speech Production
Experiment on Speech Production Email: Arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
Experiment on Speech Production Email: Arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Appendix G: Facebook Post Script

FACEBOOK POST SCRIPT

Hey everyone, I'm getting ready to collect data for my PhD studies and I'm looking for participants from Islamabad who are between 18-24 years of their age. I'm looking for Pakistani non-native speakers of English who have lived in Pakistan for the majority of their life.

Each participant will be offered Nz$20 (1500 Pak Rupee) as a token of appreciation for his/her time.

The study involves questionnaire filling, interview recording, passage reading and a word list reading. The whole session will last for an hour and half.

If you, or anyone you know would be keen to find out more and maybe participate, please message me here on Facebook, or email me on arshad.ali@pg.canterbury.co.nz for more information.